



Уральский
федеральный
университет

имени первого Президента
России Б.Н.Ельцина

Институт государственного
управления
и предпринимательства

О. В. НОВОСЕЛОВА

МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫЕ СВЯЗИ С ОБЩЕСТВЕННОСТЬЮ: ОБЗОР ИССЛЕДОВАНИЙ

INTERNATIONAL PUBLIC RELATIONS: REVIEW OF RESEARCH

Учебное пособие

МИНИСТЕРСТВО НАУКИ И ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ
РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ
УРАЛЬСКИЙ ФЕДЕРАЛЬНЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ
ИМЕНИ ПЕРВОГО ПРЕЗИДЕНТА РОССИИ Б. Н. ЕЛЬЦИНА

О. В. Новоселова

МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫЕ СВЯЗИ
С ОБЩЕСТВЕННОСТЬЮ:
ОБЗОР ИССЛЕДОВАНИЙ

INTERNATIONAL PUBLIC RELATIONS:
REVIEW OF RESEARCH

Учебное пособие

Рекомендовано
методическим советом Уральского федерального университета
в качестве учебного пособия для студентов вуза,
обучающихся по направлению подготовки
42.04.01 «Реклама и связи с общественностью»

Екатеринбург
Издательство Уральского университета
2019

ББК С524.224.67я73-1
Н76

Рецензенты:

кафедра общественных связей
Сибирского государственного университета науки и технологий
(заведующий кафедрой кандидат филологических наук,
доцент *А. В. Михайлов*);

Е. А. Киселев, кандидат педагогических наук, доцент кафедры
туристического бизнеса и гостеприимства Уральского
государственного экономического университета;

Н. В. Сазонова, кандидат филологических наук, доцент кафедры
иностранных языков и образовательных технологий
Уральского федерального университета

Новоселова, О. В.

Н76 Международные связи с общественностью: обзор исследований = International public relations: review of research : учеб. пособие / О. В. Новоселова ; М-во науки и высш. образования Рос. Федерации, Урал. федер. ун-т. — Екатеринбург : Изд-во Урал. ун-та, 2019. — 96 с. — Загл. парал. рус., англ. — Текст англ.

ISBN 978-5-7996-2629-7

В учебно-методическом пособии представлены аутентичные тексты, отражающие специфику деятельности профессионалов в сфере связей с общественностью в экономической, политической и социальной сферах в зарубежной практике. Особое внимание уделено методическим разработкам, направленным на изучение следующих вопросов: приемы разработки PR-кампаний в разных странах, влияние культурных ценностей на работу PR-специалиста в иноязычной стране, особенности работы со средствами массовой информации в разных странах, технологии выстраивания коммуникаций правительственных и неправительственных организаций с зарубежной целевой аудиторией.

Рекомендуется студентам магистратуры по дисциплине «Международные связи с общественностью».

ББК С524.224.67я73-1

CONTENTS

Introduction	5
Chapter 1. Theoretical Framework of International Public Relations (IPR): Research and Practice	9
1.1. Definition of International Public Relations.....	9
1.2. International Public Relations Approaches.....	11
1.3. International Public Relations in Practice.....	15
Chapter 2. Culture and International Public Relations	23
2.1. The Influence of Culture on International Public Relations.....	23
2.2. Hofstede's Values Work.....	25
2.3. The Personal Influence Model of Public Relations.....	29
2.4. The Circuit of Culture Model.....	32
Chapter 3. Mass Media and International Public Relations	40
3.1. The Urgency of Mass Media in International Public Relations.....	40
3.2. The Process of Mass Media System Theories Development.....	41
3.3. The Framework of Three Factors for Designing Media Relations Strategies by Sriramesh.....	43
Chapter 4. Public Relations, Diplomacy and Strategic Communications: International Model	53
4.1. Public Relations and Public Diplomacy.....	53
4.2. Convergence of Public Relations and Public Diplomacy.....	55

4.3. Public Relations and Public Diplomacy: International Convergence Model.....	57
4.4. Strategic Communication and Information Operations.....	59
4.5. Integrated Information Activities and Strategic Communication.....	60
Chapter 5. International Public Relations of Foreign Governments.....	63
5.1. The Role of International Public Relations in Nation Image Building.....	63
5.2. The History of Building National Image.....	65
5.3. Actors in the Field of Public Relations in the International Arena.....	68
5.4. Images of Nations and the International Public Relations.....	71
5.5. Methodological Framework for National Image Framing.....	73
Chapter 6. Nongovernmental Organizations and International Public Relations.....	85
6.1. Nongovernmental Organizations.....	85
6.2. International Public Relations in Nongovernmental Organizations	89

INTRODUCTION

The world increasingly has a global economy. The demand for public relations practitioners who understand and can communicate effectively in this global economy is also rapidly increasing. Specialists perceive an international PR curriculum to be highly important for students; they maintain that international training lends great credence and utility on the job.

The need for education in the field of international public relations has given rise to much discussion in recent decades. "Protectionist barriers have been taken down at a fast and relentless pace," the field has become more internationalized, and from the 1980s onward U.S.-based public relations firms began generating between 30 % and 40 % of their revenues serving foreign clients. As a consequence, there has been common agreement within the academic and professional communities that future public relations practitioners should understand cultural, societal and professional differences in order to be effective communicators across cultures.

Knowledge and experience in international affairs is increasingly significant to the practice of public relations. The 2006 Report of the Commission on Public Relations Education dedicated an entire section to "global implications" in which the authors stated, "increasing multiculturalism and the diversification of the public relations field worldwide are creating new opportunities in the classroom and in the global public relations practice, as well as creating a greater need for practitioners,

students and educators to be sensitive to diversity issues such as race, sex, age, ethnic origins and religious preferences.”⁷

The growth of teaching International Public Relations was seen to start in USA. Although by 2006 the number of higher education institutions with public relations programs that offer courses in international public relations in the United States is still a minority, approximately 25 % of colleges and 20 % of professors, the growth has been substantial since 1989, when only one university in the country, Northern Arizona University, offered a course called International Public Relations. Thus, there is clearly a growing interest in this sub-discipline. This interest is reflected in the recent publication of various scholarly articles aiming to define a methodological framework for teaching international public relations, or to examine selected public relation educators and their institutions. There have also been multiple books that offer a perspective on how public relations are implemented across cultures.

Furthermore, the creation in 2009 of the Center for Global Public Relations at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte (UNC-CH) reflects an attempt by the United States educational world to try to solidify the growing demand for this discipline.

But it is hardly possible to see of International Public Relations programs in Russia as the understanding of this discipline importance is just arising in the frame of carrying out different international events, promotion cities for attracting foreign tourists and developing attempts to build prosperous image of the country worldwide.

The discipline of international public relations surged in part as a response from the public relations world to this new international context. It found its identity applying some of the intercultural communication principles developed in the 1960s to make a connection between culture and communication. If intercultural communication studies previously focused on how communication patterns differ across cultures, international public relations scholars had as their purpose to analyze the variations of public relations practices around the world.

⁷ Report of the Commission on Public Relations Education, “The Professional Bond — Public Relations Education and the Practice”, ed. J. Van Slyke Turk, Public Relations Society of America (November 2006), section 5, 39.

The purpose of this book is to provide the overview of approaches in International Public Relation area and their practical usage in international work of PR practitioner. It will help for creating understanding of further steps in carrying out any PR campaign worldwide. Specifically, this book explains both the utility and importance of international public relations education among public relations educators and practitioners.

This book is for students in public relations and advertising major, as well as master students of the English-language program “PR and Advertising: Harmonization of Cross-Cultural Communications”.

The first chapter contains introductory information of existing theoretical approaches in the studies of international public relations. Also, there is a description of the main differences in national public relations from international one and basic concepts of international public relations. The specificity of using different approaches in practice is taken into account.

The second chapter considers approaches where a diversity in culture itself calls into question the practicality of two-way symmetric communication approach while working as a public relations practitioner in a foreign market. The typology of G. Hofstede’s values work and their application in the international activity of the PR specialist, as well as the theory of Circuit of Culture Model by E. Hall describing the practical implementation of the approach in the development of the international PR campaign, visual elements in different countries are analyzed. The description and examples of the development of PR campaigns in different countries are given. The chapter concludes with a visual review of the Pepsi and Lays cases in several countries and provides a meaningful analysis of the material developed according to E. Hall’s approach which allows analyzing and explaining in details the implementation of theoretical material in practice.

The third chapter analyzes the relevance of the media in the field of international public relations, describes the process of developing the theory of media and presents the approach that facilitates the analysis of mass media in different countries.

The following chapters present an analysis of international public relations tools implementation in governmental and non-governmental organizations. The international model of strategic communications

in public diplomacy is presented, the role of international relations with the public in designing the image of the country is emphasized, and the methodology for assessing the national image framing of the country is proposed.

All references according to literature use in each chapter are presented after it and are listed by surname, according to American Psychological Association style (APA Style).

Chapter 1

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF INTERNATIONAL PUBLIC RELATIONS (IPR): RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

1.1. Definition of International Public Relations

The body of knowledge of public relations has grown significantly in the last 25 years or so and public relations continues to evolve as a strong discipline. Encouraging as this is, growth has been very lopsided and almost all of the theory-building activity centers in the USA or in a few Western European countries. As a result, the body of knowledge makes only cursory reference, at best, to the rest of the world.

As a profession, however, a public relations is fast becoming global. The rapid expansion of communication technology has increased the dissemination of information about products, services and lifestyles around much of the world, thereby creating a global demand for these products. As a result, countries in Africa, Asia, the Middle East, Eastern Europe and Latin America are going to be major markets in the new millennium. Meeting this global demand is not limited to a few large multinational corporations any more. Much smaller organizations can now compete globally because of communication technologies such as the Internet and satellite communication. The realignment of economic power caused by the formation of multinational trading blocs such as NAFTA, EC, ASEAN, APEC (Asia Pacific Economic Conference) and ASEM (Asia Europe Meeting) has also contributed to the shrinking global market-place.

International markets evolve rapidly and very often companies struggle to keep up in terms of their strategy. Krishnamurthy Sriramesh

[Sriramesh, & Verčič, 2002] noted that meeting this global demand is not limited to a few large multinational corporations any more. Much smaller organizations can now compete globally because of communication technologies such as the Internet and satellite communication. Every company or institution are overlooking increased sales, new knowledge and experience and higher profits.

By taking your products or services internationally, you are replicating your business for another set of circumstances, a different locale and culture, with a different market, demands, needs and expectations. Public relations practitioners, working worldwide, should understand cultural, societal and professional differences across cultures in order to implement campaigns with a global reach.

There are significant differences in practicing public relations entirely within one's own country versus across national boundaries [Foster, 1998]. As Larry Foster [1998] stressed, "Of all the areas of public relations and public affairs, the international sector is the most difficult to manage. It is more complex, more unpredictable, and generates more risk than most domestic-based public relations programs" (p. 1). Nigh and Cochran [1987] added that these "characteristics inherent in the conduct of business across national boundaries" (p. 7) add great complexity in communicating with stakeholders.

The definition given by John Reed [1989], a recipient of the Public Relations Society of America's (PRSA) Atlas Award for lifetime service around the world "International public relations means you do it somewhere else, with audiences different from you cultural, linguistically, geographically" (p. 12) only proves the difficultness of doing public relations worldwide. Especially in the Internet era when everything is developing too fast and new challenges appear. Friedman [2006] explained that these affect "all the businesses, institutions, and nation-states that are now facing the inevitable, even predictable, changes but lack the leadership, flexibility, and imagination not because they are not smart or aware, but because the speed of change is simply overwhelming them" (p. 49).

Omenugha [2002] surmised that when Public Relations is planned to bring mutual understanding between an organization and its publics in various countries where the organization operates, that PR is said to be international. She further explained that when Public Relations

policies and programs are used in projecting a favorable image of the organization, its business and its country in the global community, in an interdependent world, that PR is international... It is a deliberate, planned and sustained effort geared towards securing the desired favorable image for the organization in the international community, paving way for profitable operations.

The basic difference between Public Relations and International Public Relations is that while the former targets its activities to publics located within a country, the publics of the latter are found across national boundaries. Hence Nwosu [1996] sees IPR as “deliberately planned, systematic and researched activities of an organization or nation which are aimed at maintaining sound, productive and mutual relations with international publics such as customers, agents, government, business and non-business organizations”. In essence, international public relations occur when the geographical scope of a PR campaign has been expanded to cover more than one national territory. This time the planning, research and communication that accompany public relations campaign at this level are all targeted at publics across national borders.

Wilcox, Cameron, Ault, and Agee [2007] said it better: “International public relations may be defined as the planned and organized effort of a company, institution, or government to establish mutually beneficial relations with the publics of other nations” (p. 516). The important elements in an international program, therefore, boil down to where the entity is located and to which publics it must build relationships. If the publics are located down the street or only within the same nation as the organization’s home base, interacting with them does not constitute international public relations.

1.2. International Public Relations Approaches

The 1990s heralded increased interest in gathering empirical evidence about public relations activities in different parts of the world.

Public relations play an important role in the world of international business. PR can help companies to develop positive images for their businesses and at the same time public relations play an important role

as part of the marketing strategy. The challenge to choose the best approach to apply for doing public relation while working in different countries appeared. The debate on whether public relation can be practiced in similar ways in different countries was started three decades ago [Illman, 1980; Botan, 1992].

Those so called “ethnocentric perspective” scholars have argued that public relations practices should be no different from their own culture [Illman, 1980], whereas, “cultural relativist perspective” scholars have argued that public relations practice should be different in every society [Botan, 1992; Huang, 2000]. There were also “the middle way” scholars [Verčič, L. A. Grunig, & J. E. Grunig, 1996] who proposed a normative model of global public relations that contains generic principles and specific applications. However, there is a visible lack of truly comparative and international public relations research which can be used by practitioners as a model in their developing international communication strategy.

To sum up, the approach to this discipline has traditionally been based on two components that introduce a distinction with regard to the public relations field as a whole.

First, combined intercultural communication and public relations, much of the education and research in international public relations has relied on the application of a culture-general approach that focuses on how cultural differences affect communication between public relations practitioners, clients and publics from different cultures [Zaharna, 2001, p. 136]. Such cross-cultural researchers as Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck [1961], Hall [1989], and Hofstede [2001] have been extensive in the literature in international public relations [Zaharna, 2001; Taylor, 2001]. The application of these cultural taxonomies has enabled, among other things, cross-cultural comparisons about preferred interpersonal relationship orientations within cultures [Kluckhohn, & Strodtbeck, 1961]; the amount of explicit and implicit information contained in messages and the division between “low-context” and “high-context” cultures [Hall, 1989]; and the extent to which cultures believe that institutional power should be distributed equally or unequally, also called “power distance” [Hofstede, 2001].

The second component has been connected with the study of individual countries describing the state of their public relations industries and

other historical, economic, political and media aspects shaping the practice of public relations. The popularity of this approach has been reflected in an important number of books published during the last 15 years [Culbertson, & Chen, 1996; Freitag, & Stokes, 2009; Sriramesh, & Verčič, 2003; Tilson, & Alozie, 2004] as well as a large number of journal articles studying public relations practices in different countries — like India [Bardhan, 2003; Sriramesh, 1992], Russia [Guth, 2000], Taiwan [Wu, Taylor, & Chen, 2001], Spain [Tilson, & Saura Pairez, 2003], and Japan [Cooper-Chen, & Tanaka, 2008], among others. The main purpose of such comparative research of PR practice in different countries is to “identify more or less universal problems that challenge many or all nations, and to search for generic principles that apply widely” [Culbertson, & Chen, 1996, p. 2].

But with the rise of the Internet the context for public relations practice around the world has dramatically changed since the theories were proposed. The Internet has transformed communication, as well as the balances of power between organizations, media, and publics [Friedman, et al., 2000].

In the present age of digital communication, time has been compressed by reducing the distance between different points in space, and the sense of space has led people to feel that local, national, and global space becomes obsolete [Harvey, 1990].

All these innovations in digital media, or so-called new media, have changed and continue to change the way we think, act, and live. New media trend has led to the transformation of almost all aspects of human society. For instance, socially and culturally, globalization has changed the perception of what a community is, redefined the meaning of cultural identity and civic society, and demanded a new way of intercultural interaction [Chen, & Zhang, 2010].

Today’s marketplace needs for a “continuous personalized dialog with customers” [Lindgren, Jedbratt, & Svensson, 2002, p. xvii] and those practitioners who see modern technologies such as Internet-based communication as extensions of traditional methods [Gregory, 2004; Holtz, 2002] will need to adapt to this “new terrain” [Heath, 2001, p. 581] if they are to traverse it successfully.

One ongoing conversation that has relevance in the global arena is the idea of two-way symmetrical communication between organiza-

tions and their publics — the heart of the generic / specific theory conceived by James Grunig, Laurie A. Grunig, Dejan Verčič in the early 1990s [J.E. Grunig, L. A. Grunig, & Dozier, 2006]. The foundations of symmetrical communication were developed before the Internet became a communication mechanism, but the Internet strengthens the rationale for symmetrical communication in the generic realm of the generic / specific theory.

Early studies in this area incorporated two useful concepts into a comprehensive theory. The first concept incorporated into the theory responded to a prevailing argument about public relations in the multinational. One side claimed international public relations had to be centralized to preserve global management strategies and messages; the other side argued for localization, because centralization could not possibly respond to local cultural differences and communication mandates. It was considered that neither approach was effective when practiced exclusively; rather, some combination of the two was most conducive to true effectiveness. As J.E. Grunig, L. A. Grunig, and D. M. Dozier [2006] explained, “We developed a theory of generic principles and specific applications that falls midway between an ethnocentric theory (that public relations is the same everywhere) and a polycentric theory (that public relations is different everywhere)” (p. 170).

The second basis of the generic / specific theory was the theory of excellence in public relations and communication management [J.E. Grunig, & L. A. Grunig, 1992]. This framework combined concepts already considered to add value to public relations in the organization. Most important, the theory presupposed the need for two-way symmetrical public relations that seeks mutually beneficial communication between the organization and its publics. It also included the positioning of the top public relations officer with senior management, separation from marketing so that public relations can perform the managerial roles of environmental scanning and relationship building with all stakeholders, and other contributors to effectiveness. The excellence team had already assumed that “communication excellence is universal — it is no different in Canada, the United Kingdom, or the United States” [Dozier, J.E. Grunig, & L. A. Grunig, 1995, p. 4].

Conceptualized by J. E. Grunig, L. A. Grunig, and D. M. Dozier [2006], the symmetrical model proposed that “individuals, organizations, and publics should use communication to adjust their ideas and behavior to those of others rather than to try to control how others think and behave” (p. 156). Inherent in the theory is the presumption that the entity will use two-way communication based on respect for its publics. Heath [2001] explained well the rationale: “Public relations is a relationship-building professional activity that adds value to organizations because it increases the willingness of markets, audiences, and publics to support them rather than to oppose their effects” (p. 8).

The current reach of the Internet certainly strengthens the need for communication that is reciprocal, based on mutual respect and the willingness for either organizations or their publics to make changes — all of which are important aspects of two-way symmetrical communication [J. E. Grunig, L. A. Grunig, & Dozier, 2006].

1.3. International Public Relations in Practice

The Excellence Theory proposed establishing “a set of theoretical benchmarks by which to help solve the practice problems of public relations” [Verčič, L. A. Grunig, & J. E. Grunig, 1996, p. 37].

The Excellence theory is a general theory of public relations that “specifies how public relations makes organizations more effective, how it is organized and managed when it contributes most to organizational effectiveness, the conditions in organizations and their environments that make organizations more effective, and how the monetary value of public relations can be determined” (p. 39). The excellence theory resulted from a study about the best practice in public relations, which was headed by James E. Grunig and funded by the Foundation of the International Association of Business Communicators (IABC) in 1985. Constructed upon a number of middle-range theories, and tested with surveys and interviews of professionals and CEOs in the United States, the United Kingdom, and Canada, the Excellence theory provides a “theoretical and empirical benchmark” for public relations units.

One of the best attempts to come up with a critical assessment of the international applicability of the generic principles proposed by the Excellence Theory to a cross-cultural, multinational context was the research conducted by the American scholar Robert I. Wakefield from 1995 to 1998 which “evolved into three cumulative studies that combined the wisdom of 79 public relations experts in 30 countries... using the excellence variables as the measuring stick” [Wakefield, 2007, p. 555].

Overall, the three studies yielded sufficient evidence to support the validity of the Excellence Theory in the global arena and its applicability in the international, multinational context, since they offered confirmation of the excellence variables from senior public relations people who were orchestrating the strategic activities around the world. Most importantly, “with these characteristics of excellence in place, it was possible to develop a model for public relations practice in the multinational organization. The model could be used to evaluate a multinational’s public relations program and predict its potential for achieving and maintaining a solid representation around the world as Wakefield called this “model the — model of world-class public relations” (p. 556), and he identified four different classifications underneath it ranging from the lack of sufficient resources and personnel to achieve the required goals to highly qualified personnel and global staffing. He called the four classifications under this model the dormant program, emerging program, sophisticated program, and world-class program.

The fact that the Excellence Theory proposed a set of generic, normative principles determining what constitutes excellent public relations practices across different cultures and political / economic systems, does not mean that this theory ignored the potential differences and the possible variations between different countries and organizations all over the world. In fact, a theory of generic principles would not deny that different forms of public relations practice can be found in different locations. Instead, it would maintain that not all of these forms of practice will be effective in helping organizations resolve conflict and build relationships with their publics.

Interestingly, in the light of the above points, the Excellence Theory, which is indeed a “normative theory” describing how public relations should be carried out, rather than how it is actually done, could be seen

as developing a middle-ground theory between cultural relativism and ethnocentrism, since its purpose is to develop a general theoretical framework for public relations practice while also taking into account specific strategies and applications of those principles in different countries, based on different cultural, political, and economic factors.

Therefore, while listing the previously mentioned generic principles for determining excellence within the domain of public relations practice, the Excellence Theory also proposed the following specific, contextual variables which can explain some of the potential limitations or constraints on the applicability of these generic principles in certain countries around the world.

1. *The Political-Economic System.* The type of political and economic system in a particular country and the degree of freedom tolerated and practiced in it are important determinants of the possibility of excellence in public relations practice. For example, it can be argued that an authoritarian political system is most likely to suppress freedom of expression and democratic practice and, therefore, is more inclined to foster and promote propaganda, rather than professional journalism. The problem with propaganda, however, is that it is not about communication between organizations and their publics; it is about discommunication. In other words, it disables the formation of publics and, thus, hinders professional public relations practice, through blocking the two-way symmetrical model of communication, which is one of the generic principles of excellence in public relations practice.

2. *Level of Development.* This variable refers to the degree of achieving economic and technological growth in a certain nation. The development level often determines who controls public relations. In developed nations, public relations is a tool for market competition; in developing nations, it assists the government in rallying its citizens. The development levels also influence literacy rates and the media that are available for public relations activities.

3. *Culture.* This is a highly complex and ambiguous concept, which is usually difficult to define and to study, yet the influence of communication on culture is widely accepted, and, therefore, the study of the impact of culture on public relations practice is also important, because public relations and communication have also been largely seen as synonymous

and interlinked. Four particular classifications defining cultural groups have been particularly highlighted and analyzed in terms of their potential impact on public relations practice, namely: the fostering of individualism or collectivism, the social distances between the powerful and the un-powerful (power distance), the extent to which uncertainty is avoided or welcomed (uncertainty avoidance), and the extent to which typically masculine or feminine characteristics are prevalent.

4. *Extent of Activism.* Activism is another highly complex and elusive term, which is highly relevant to public relations, in general, but is especially acute in the realm of international public relations, in particular. The form and extent of activism varies widely across different countries and cultures, in light of the type of political, economic, and social system prevailing in each society. Responding to activists and issues is more challenging in the international domain. This is because multinational organizations face more stakeholders than domestic organizations, which makes it more difficult to identify international issues and publics. Also, multinational organizations face interest groups that transcend boundaries. Finally, issues resolution in the domain of multinational organizations involves the challenging task of communicating across cultures.

5. *Media Systems.* There is no doubt that the type of media system prevailing in any society affects the way public relations is handled and practiced. The degree of freedom of expression allowed in the media, as well as the level of development and sophistication of the media system certainly affect the ability of public relations practitioners to perform their job professionally and to communicate effectively with their respective publics. Different interest groups and activists manipulate the media to achieve their goals and objectives and to make sure that their voices and demands are heard. Today, the proliferation of many channels and sources of information internationally, especially through television giants and the Internet, ensured the fast and effective flow of information more than ever before. However, the media monopoly in foreign information can create unrealistic images about other countries or about individuals and organizations from those countries. Yet, despite this huge expansion of international media systems, effective public relations comes down to local communication. In other words, the actual success of public

relations efforts and practices should be assessed first and foremost on the local level, which usually determines the possible level of effectiveness on the wider international scale.

After providing this brief overview of these five qualifying principles by which to consider global principles of excellent public relations, it is important to mention that when Wakefield tested their validity in the three research studies which he conducted cross-culturally, he also added a sixth principle, which is language differences. He argued that the importance of adding this sixth principle was because language has an obvious effect on how public relations could be conducted, especially since many nations have multiple official languages and differing dialects, which, in turn, complicates the task of executing public relations successfully in the international domain. Moreover, despite the fact that English has become a universal language, which is spoken by almost one quarter of the world's population, the fact remains that, even with a global language, intercultural misunderstandings can still take place, sometimes leading to serious or tragic effects. It is for this reason that Wakefield [2007] recommends giving local practitioners the autonomy to communicate directly with their publics rather than being forced to parrot global verbiage. Although consistency in organizational messages is important, the messages must be broad enough to allow for local adaptation.

QUESTIONS

1. What are the reasons of IPR growth?
2. What is the difference between PR and IPR?
3. What are characteristics of two lines of IPR approaches?
4. What is generic / specific theory?
5. What is the theory of excellence about?

REFERENCES

- BARDHAN, N. (2003). Rupturing public relations metanarratives: The example of India. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 15(3), 225–248.
- BOTAN, C. (1992). International public relations: Critique and reformulation. *Public Relations Review*, 18(2), 149–159.
- CHEN, G. M., & ZHANG, K. (2010). New media and cultural identity in the global society. In R. Taiwo (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Discourse*

Behavior and Digital Communication: Language Structures and Social Interaction (pp. 801–815). Hershey, PA: Idea Group Inc.

COOPER-CHEN, A., & TANAKA, S. M. (2008). Public relations in Japan: The cultural roots of Kouhou. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 20(1), 94–114.

CULBERTSON, H. M., & CHEN, N. (Eds.). (1996). *International Public Relations. A comparative analysis*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

DOZIER, D. M., GRUNIG, L. A., & GRUNIG, J. E. (1995). *Manager's Guide to Excellence in Public Relations and Communication Management*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

FOSTER, L. (1998). Atlas award lecture on international public relations. *International Section Monograph, II*. New York: Public Relations Society of America.

FREITAG, A., & STOKES, A. (2009). *Global public relations*. New York: Routledge.

FRIEDMAN, N., ET AL. (2000). Using Bayesian networks to analyze expression data. *Journal of computational biology*, 7(3–4), 601–620.

FRIEDMAN, T. L. (2006). *The world is flat: A brief history of the twenty-first century*. New York: Farrar, Straus, and Giroux.

GREGORY, A. (2004). Scope and structure of public relations: a technology driven view. *Public Relations Review* 30, 245–254.

GRUNIG, J. E., & GRUNIG, L. A. (1992). Models of public relations and communication. In J. Grunig (Ed.), *Excellence in public relations and communication management* (pp. 285–325). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

GRUNIG, J. E., GRUNIG, L. A., & DOZIER, D. M. (2006). The Excellence Theory. In C. Botan, & V. Hazleton (Eds.), *Public Relations Theory II* (pp. 21–62). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

GUTH, D. W. (2000). The emergence of public relations in the Russian Federation. *Public Relations Review*, 26(2), 191–207.

HALL, E. T. (1989). *Beyond culture*. New York: Anchor Books.

HARVEY, D. (1990). *The condition of postmodernity: An enquiry into the origins of cultural change*. Oxford: Blackwell.

HEATH, R. L. (Ed.). (2001). *Handbook of Public Relations*. Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage.

HOFSTEDE, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors institutions, and organizations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

HOLTZ, S. (2002). *Public Relations on the Net*. 2nd ed. New York: AMACOM.

HUANG, Y. (2000). The personal influence model and Gao Guanxi in Taiwan Chinese public relations. *Public Relations Review*, 26, 219–236.

ILLMAN, P.E. (1980). *Developing overseas managers and managers overseas*. New York: Amacon.

KLUCKHOHN, C., & STRODTBECK, F. (1961). *Variations in value orientations*. Evanston, IL: Row, Peterson.

LINDGREN, M., JEDBRATT, J., & SVENSSON, E. (2002). *Beyond Mobile: People, communications and marketing in a mobilized world*. Basingstoke, Hampshire: Palgrave.

NIGH, D., & COCHRAN, P.L. (1987). Issues management and the multinational enterprise. *Management International Review*, 1, p. 7.

NWOSU, I.E. (1996). *Public Relations Management: Principles, Issues and Application*. Aba: Dominican-Publishers.

OMENUGHA, K. A. (2002). Understanding International Public Relations. In C. S. Okunna (Ed.), *Teaching Mass Communication: A Multi-Dimensional Approach* (pp. 65–84). Enugu: New Generation Books.

REED, J. (1989). International media relations: Avoid Self-blinding. *Public Relations Quarterly* (Summer), 12–15.

SRIRAMESH, K. (1992). Societal culture and public relations: Ethnographic evidence from India. *Public Relations Review*, 18(2), 201–211.

SRIRAMESH, K., & VERČIČ, D. (2002, April). International public relations: A framework for future research. *Journal of Communication Management*, 6(2), 103–117.

SRIRAMESH, K., & VERČIČ, D. (Eds.). (2003). *The global public relations handbook: Theory, research, and practice*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

TAYLOR, M. (2001). Internationalizing the public relations curriculum. *Public Relations Review*, 27(1), 73–88.

TILSON, D.J., & ALOZIE, E. C. (2004). *Toward the common good. Perspectives in international public relations*. Boston: Pearson.

TILSON, D. J., & SAURA PAIREZ, P. (2003). Public relations and the new golden age of Spain: A confluence of democracy, economic development and the media. *Public Relations Review*, 29(2), 125–143.

VERČIČ, D., GRUNIG, L. A., & GRUNIG, J.E. (1996). Global and specific principles of public relations: Evidence from Slovenia. In H. M. Culbertson,

& N. Chen (Eds.), *International public relations: A comparative analysis* (pp. 31–66). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

WAKEFIELD, R. I. (2007). A Retrospective on World Class: The Excellence Theory Goes International. In E. L. Toth (Ed.), *The Future of Excellence in Public Relations and Communication Management: Challenges for the Next Generation* (pp. 545–568). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

WILCOX, D., CAMERON, G., AULT, P., & AGEE, W. (2007). *Public relations strategies and tactics* (8th ed.). Boston: Pearson.

WU, M.-Y., TAYLOR, M., & CHEN, M.-J. (2001). Exploring societal and cultural influences on Taiwanese public relations. *Public Relations Review*, 27(3), 317–336.

ZAHARNA, R. S. (2001). An 'In-Awareness' approach to International Public Relations. *Public Relations Review*, 27(2), 135–148.

Chapter 2

CULTURE AND INTERNATIONAL PUBLIC RELATIONS

2.1. The Influence of Culture on International Public Relations

The public relations field has evolved all over the world with increased intensity nowadays, having become a genuine 'global industry', covering countries with extremely varied cultures, political systems and development. With a wide span across the globe, from the US to Asia and lately Africa, from Ireland to Russia and Eastern Europe, this field has evolved fast, based on the creation of institutional structures that define the way in which the public relations work and legitimate themselves. It is an ascertained fact that the public relations have become a significant 'business' at a global level, with an increased development, faster than that of the global economy on the whole.

The practice of international public relations has developed after World War II and is on the continuous increase, given the fact that international tourism and trade evolve more and more rapidly and governments of more and more countries aim at acquiring more influence at world level. Concepts such as 'multiculturalism', 'ethnocentrism', 'intercultural communication', 'individualism', 'collectivism', among others are more and more widespread and largely used, acquiring more and more complex meanings (H.E. Miculescu in [Curtin, & Gaither, 2007]). The globalized world seems to be 'shrinking' day by day, the borders having faded, companies merge, the language of advertising has become

universal, the slogans of the marketing campaigns alike and the new technology advances rapidly throughout the globe.

A positive image of a nation, meaning one of trust and reliability for the other actors of the international system is an important factor for a country's place on the world stage, being at the same time one of the main objectives of the international public relations. Thus, in the context of the world in which the image of a country is determined and influenced by so many factors, knowledge of the international public relations principles in order to better implement them at a high level of professionalism become compulsory elements of the activity of any country's government. Given the high speed communications era, the international public relations practitioners are compelled to work out communication programs meant to transcend the international borders in order to function at global level. Therefore, adapting public relations for their harmonization with the local conditions is of utmost importance, and distinguishing what works for one country and what not in various contexts.

The field of international public relations redefines itself permanently. With increased frequency, this field acquired a new basis, grounded on the cultural aspects, the changes occurring in the environment and the permanent process by means of which people all over the world try to understand the world they live in. The clashes between cultures occur at the work place, technology seems to compress time and space, producing new realities even in the least developed areas of the world, whereas *power* remains a constant element, in any relation throughout the globe.

However, there is a group of scholars who believe that the diversity in culture itself challenges the practicality of the two-way symmetrical communication approach. That approach was developed in the West, which has dominated public relations research and education [Holtzhausen, Petersen, & Tindall, 2003; Bardhan, 1996]. Culture needs to be more clearly understood in the public relations context. Cultural differences are one of the hurdles facing International Public Relations from the beginning. Concurring, Omenugha [2002] identified culture as one of the factors that make IPR complex, stating that "it is believed that custom is a function of culture, which defines the way of life of any given society. Culture varies greatly from country to country... Care therefore, should be taken so as not to cause hostility or indignation among the target audience."

Undoubtedly adequate knowledge of both language and culture is needed to communicate effectively in any society, but success in the practice of international public relations relies heavily on the recognition of those cultural patterns and values that shape the cross-cultural communications process. When one thinks about culture and public relations, the work of Geert Hofstede [1991] often comes to mind.

Hofstede [1991] describes culture as the “collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (p. 5). All social facts, which include institutions, behavioral patterns, norm systems, or societal formats, are made into “cultural goods” by the inherent bonds within a society [Servaes, 1988, p. 59]. The differences among cultures result in the differences in many social dimensions across different countries [Servaes, 1988]. Understanding the differences between national cultures is thought to contribute to cooperation among different nations [Hofstede, 1991].

2.2. Hofstede's Values Work

Hofstede's values work has been used as a foundation in business, communication, intercultural, interpersonal, and public relations research. His work has been compelling for a variety of reasons, which include the business focus, the breadth of countries surveyed in his research, and the ease of applying his principles to international settings. Hofstede identified five cultural variables that influence communication and relationships in organizational settings: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity / femininity, individualism / collectivism, and Confucianism, or “long-term orientation” (LTO).

Power distance points out to the basic differences in inequality across cultures [Hofstede, 1991, p. 65]. It refers to “the extent to which less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally” (Ibid.).

Uncertainty avoidance refers to the ability for human to cope with uncertainty (p. 176). It is defined as “the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertainty or unknown situations” (Ibid.).

Masculinity — femininity alludes to the duality of the sexes (Ibid.). It measures the difference of social roles taken by men and women in a society. In a feminine society, men and women share similar personalities such as modesty and tenderness, while in a society of masculinity, men are more assertive, tough and ambitious, whereas women are more tender and modest. In addition, the preoccupation with material goods and status characterizes a masculine society.

Individualism — collectivism refers to relationships between the individual and the collectivity in a society (p. 148). Collectivism favors group interests and obligations above individual interests and pleasure, and it defines self by including group attributes, whereas individualism prefers individual interests to group interests, and it defines self independently.

A fifth dimension, **long-term versus short-term orientation** was added into the system later [Hofstede, 1991; 2001]. Some cultures treat time like a precious commodity. Time is carefully measured, people act according to timetables. The production and distribution of news releases and the organizing of news conferences, among others, have to follow strict schedule. Excuses for not meeting mass media deadlines are not accepted. In other cultures the public relations practice may not follow a strict timeline. There exist no universal meaning of time. Culture influences the way time is perceived, defined and used.

Long-term vs. short-term orientation is the most important one for ethical questions of PR. Discussion about the concept of lie may have a different outcome depending on the culture of the participant. Long-term perspective thinking is strongly related with such concerns as reputation building, customer trust and reliability, which actually are classical motivators for ethical behavior within the field of PR.

European and Anglo-American countries, have demonstrated a short-term orientation in systematic global comparisons [Lussier, & Achua, 2009, p. 392]. People in those societies place emphasis on short-term results, rapid need-gratification [Samovar, & Porter, 2009, p. 207]. This for example can influence such areas as corporate social responsibilities (CSR) [Samli, 2008, p. 115].

Hofstede [1984] asserted that these four variables are prevalent across cultures and will affect the functioning of any organization in a culture to various degrees. For public relations, Hofstede's variables affect

the assumptions of communication and practice of public relations both in the organization and in societal culture. Hofstede's work has been considered a good start for understanding the dynamics of international and organizational communication, and public relations. His work emerged as a heuristic for international communication during a time when the field of public relations sought to align its practice with management theories and activities. Top scholars such as those involved in the Excellence research argued that public relations was a "management process" and that once public relations practitioners gained access to the dominant coalition, the public relations function would be valued and respected [see J. E. Grunig, & L. A. Grunig, 1992].

EXAMPLES

Researchers have applied Hofstede's cultural dimensions to the studies of Internet-related communications. Stewart, Shields, and Sen [1998], for example, identified one of Hofstede's cultural dimensions, collectivism versus individualism, through a text analysis of transcripts of a course's listserv. They discovered that students from collectivistic cultures perform differently than students from an individualistic culture when they interacted in listserv. Asian students were found to be more group-oriented demonstrating a stronger sense of "we" in their posted messages, whereas white Americans, particularly males, were found to be more individual-oriented. In this study, then the usage pattern on a listserv, a popular form of Internet use in organizational communication, was demonstrated to be shaped by cultural traits [Stewart, Shields, & Sen, 1998].

Marcus and Gould [2000] applied Hofstede's framework to their study of user-interface designs, and they identified Hofstede's cultural dimensions in different web pages from different cultures. Focusing on the structural and graphic elements of web page design, they found that a university web site from Malaysia, a culture with high power distance in Hofstede's framework, tended to emphasize the official seal of the university and pictures of faculty or administration leaders, which could not be found on a university web site from the Netherlands, a culture with low power distance in Hofstede's framework. Also, a web site for a na-

tional park from Costa Rica, a collectivistic culture, emphasized national agendas and political announcements, whereas a web site for a national park from the U.S., an individualistic culture, focused on the visitors and their activities.

Following Marcus and Gould [2000], Zahir, Dobing, and Hunter [2002] revealed cultural differences in their study of national web portals from 26 countries. They found that despite the fact that most national portals followed the basic format of Yahoo, cultural dimensions could be identified. For example, the Philippines, a culture of high power distance in Hofstede's study, was found to be willing to demonstrate power difference in its web portal. Its national portal prioritized Filipinos working in foreign countries by providing them with special services, as these people made more money than those who worked within the Philippines. Another example was from Australia, an individualistic culture. The authors found that the national portal of Australia did not include items related to women's issues, religion, and personals, which were believed to be the means of bringing people together. This finding demonstrated that Australians acted in a relatively independent manner, and group-oriented activities were not very important in their culture, as evidenced by their national portal.

Over the last decade, scholars have applied Hofstede to studying public relations in nations that included Western Europe during the 1999 Coca Cola tainting crisis [Taylor, 2000], Taiwan [Wu, & Taylor, 2003], and Slovenia [Verčič, L. A. Grunig, & J.E. Grunig, 1996]. These were useful case studies, but as Martin and Nakayama [1999] and others have claimed, Hofstede's research embodies a static understanding of culture.

What authors in the late 1990s and early 2000s found may need to be revisited in order to better describe culture and public relations within the dynamic conditions of globalization.

Other cultural models, such as Sriramesh's personal influence model and Kent and Taylor's [2002] research on dialogic communication, may help show the dynamic nature of culture as it influences public relations theory and practice.

2.3. The Personal Influence Model of Public Relations

The personal influence model of public relations [Sriramesh, 1992] provides a valuable framework for understanding how culture may influence the development of public relations in a nation (or culture). The model is common in countries and organizations that are hierarchical, tightly controlled by the government, or subject to cronyism. Personal influence is often exercised behind the scenes by local business professionals, organizational and government leaders, and by local politicians or party members to achieve organizational or individual success.

According to Toth [2007], the core of personal influence is found in interpersonal communication and suggested that the public influence model of public relations could be more aptly called the “individual influence model” since the power of personal influence lies in the status, trustworthiness, and credibility of a person.

Rhee [2001] noted that interpersonal communication is recognized among communication scholars as a fundamental component of public relations practice. He further stated that face-to-face communication methods are preferably applied to develop 10 personal relationships “with key individuals in the media, government, or political and activist groups” (p. 104).

Toth [2007] also pointed out that research exploring interpersonal communication processes in public relations has been scarce. She suggested that “public relations should be focused on interpersonal communication, in which the public serves as the bridge between an organization and its publics” (p. 446).

Coombs [2001] argued that interpersonal communication has exceptional values, and qualities for clarifying the discussion and building understanding, which attributes are not as distinctly recognized in mass mediated communication (p. 106). He further stated that interpersonal communication differs from mediated communication by providing the opportunity for “immediate behavioral observation of others”, such as facial expressions, vocal tones, emotional state and prompt feedback, and reactions between communicators (Ibid.).

As a theoretical frame for the personal influence model, Grunig [2001] identified the applied communication strategies as cultivation

strategies; and he stated that these strategies are mostly drawn from interpersonal communication and conflict resolution theories. According to Hung [2007], “cultivation” of relationships indicates development and defined communication not merely as constant but as progressing toward long-term and improved associations (p. 459).

In order to successfully cultivate the development of public relationships with key publics around the world, the organization must maintain a representative image or face. Coombs [2001] described this process as a practitioner’s endeavor to create a meaningful bond with the public. He suggested that this personification process results in a greater understanding and appreciation of the aims of the organization; mostly it reaches the desired effect. He further added that face-to-face communication allows the organization to dispel any vague or undefined aspects of its nature. As soon as the public attaches a face to the organization, the organization will bestow new meaning upon the mindset of its audience. Even more so, this enfacing, or as Huang [2000] defined it or face-work process helps to eliminate past perceptions and misconceptions that are the potential initiators of most speculations (p. 223).

Therefore, the research of Coombs [2001] indicated that cultivating face-work can result in positive and effective relationships. For instance, global organizations, such as Microsoft, can provide an excellent example of the face-work notion, as well as political spheres (p. 110). Bill Gates has inevitably grown in popularity to capture the face of Microsoft. Also, during the 2008 U.S. presidential elections, for many voters President Barack Obama has become the face of a new hope in America. In both cases publics attached faces to organizational or political operations and ideals that provided them with the opportunity for personal identification with these entities. Publics can easily build ties with these representative faces, which they would be incapable of doing with impersonal entities. Inarguably, Bill Gates has added his personality, achievements, expertise, style, character, identity and emotions, in other words the human touch into his public associations on behalf of Microsoft. This is where the formation or alteration of opinions, attitudes and behaviors begins. This phenomenon can occur in any organization where people naturally seek to overcome the influences of impersonal operations and messages. In addition, the human touch has the potential to transform any nameless,

faceless ideas into persons with identity, charm, and character, as well as create connections, trust, and direct involvement that help publics better connect with organizations.

Taylor and Kent [1999] suggested that public relations professionals who understand the importance of personal influence are able to recruit highly influential individuals to help with public relations efforts and seek out individuals with ties to target publics. In order to gain access to these highly influential individuals, Dozier and Repper [1992] defined publics as a collection of regular citizens who have banded together in a common cause and who can exert power to influence the fate of organization. Sriramesh [1996] argued that personal influence has often been seen as a “pervasive public relations technique,” but personal relationships with key decision makers again need to be recognized and incorporated into public relations strategy rather than exerting one-way mediated public influence (p. 175). Grunig [2001] further argued that in order to remain ethical in practicing international public relations; organizations must commit to research about the needs of key publics and rather invest in personified community sustaining and development than mass-media campaigns (p. 21).

Research shows that personal influence is common to India, other parts of Asia, Africa, and other nations. In “low-context” (see below) nations like the United States, having access to, or exercising personal influence is not a requirement for organizational or personal success, but it often helps. Some types of occupations and institutions rely more heavily on personal influence for success. In “high-context” cultures, like South Korea, however, personal influence is crucial and members of groups and those with connections are often more successful at achieving organizational and personal goals; for example, party members in communist or socialist states, members of in-groups, royalty, individuals with higher social status, people from higher castes, businesspeople, and individuals with more resources [Taylor, & Kent, 1999].

2.4. The Circuit of Culture Model

As International Public Relation sphere is closely connected with communication in different cultures it is highly important to take into account circuit of culture model by S. Hall [2001].

The central premise of the model is the primacy of power in relationships and the convergence of culture, knowledge and power. The circuit has the following ‘moments’ where meaning is created: representation, production, consumption, identity and regulation [du Gay, Hall, James, Mackay, & Negus, 1997]. To provide alternative pathways for theory building in public relations that ‘reflect its wide range of actual applications and cultural contexts and not just privilege Western, corporate settings’ [Curtin, & Gaither, 2007, p. 210].

Curtin and Gaither [2005, p. 96] articulated the modeling of the circuit of culture in public relations.

According to Hall culture can be understood in terms of “shared meanings”. In modern world, the media is the biggest tool of circulation of these meanings. Stuart Hall presents them as being shared through language in its operation as a “representational (signifying) system” and he presents the circuit of culture model as a way of understanding this process.

The process that culture gathers meaning at five different “moments” — signification (representation), identity, production, consumption and regulation.

S. Hall emphasized the importance of specific cultural conditions at every stage of any communicational process. Creators of media texts produce them in particular institutional context, drawing on shared framework of knowledge etc. The same media text is engaged by audience in different context.

Briefly, the discursive process of manufacturing and shaping cultural meaning is called representation. “We give things meaning by how we *represent* them” [Hall, 1997, p. 3]. Representation meaning from language, painting, photography and other media uses “signs and symbols to represent whatever exists in the world in terms of meaningful idea and concept, image” [Baudrillard, 1988, p. 101].

Example: A Cross, Traffic lights.

Production, on the other hand, refers to meanings associated with products, services, experiences or in the case of PR the messages strategically crafted for targeted publics. Producers encode dominant meanings into their cultural products (pic. 1).



Indian Advertisement of Lays



Pakistan Advertisement of Lays

Pic. 1. The use of word “HALAL” in Islamic countries on the products of snacks “Lays” by its manufacturing multinational company

Meanings derived through the production and consumption process form identities which are at once malleable, fragmented and complex as they include subjective and socially developed constructs such as class, gender, ethnicity and so on.

Example: To target the ideal young consumers: awards had to be low. Name must be cool. Addition of new demand (e.g. Diet coke) (pic. 2).

It is not a plastic bottle, but a soft drink

Actual entity = bottle

Sign = Pepsi name

Signifier = a particular drink



Sign = Pepsi + Michael Jackson

Signifier = particular drink

Production = soft drink Pepsi by PepsiCo

Consumer = people of USA

Representation = dance Rock and fun



Pic. 2. To understand the Circuit Model of Culture take the example of “Pepsi”

Finally, regulation comprises the formal and informal cultural control mechanisms that run the gamut of social norms, technology, and institutional as well as economic, religious and political systems.

Here are some questions — by no means an exhaustive list — you might ask of the thing (site / practice / text / object) you are studying, to get a handle on how it works in terms of each element of the Circuit of Culture. Remember that none of these elements ever works alone; they are all very closely connected...

PRODUCTION

- Follow the money! Who's *paying* for it, and/or *backing* it? Where's the money (and other resources) coming from? Is it on Fox? Paid for in part by the Melville Trust?
- Who's *making* or *producing* it? What is his / her / their story? Socio-economic background? Interests (financial and otherwise)? Personal experiences? Positions (or "biases")?
- Who *thought it up*? (Same questions apply from above.)
- How different are the people who are paying for it, making it, and thinking it up? All together living in a co-op? All the same person? Paid for by a housewife in St. Cloud, made by a sweatshop laborer in Shenzhen, designed by a firm in Wayzata?

CONSUMPTION

- Are the people who consume it (or use it, or do it) different from the people who produce it? If so, again as above: how different?
- Is it something you buy? If so, what does it *cost*? Who can afford it? Who can't? Why?
- *How, where, with whom, and why* do you consume (do / watch / read / listen to / eat) it?
- Is it *advertised* or *marketed*? If so, how, where, why, and to whom?

REGULATION

- Is it *legal*, or *against the rules*? What rules? Who makes and enforces them? How / why?
- Is it *obscene*? *pornographic*? *subversive*? Why, and according to whom?
- What kind of *certification*, *acceptance*, and/or *rubber-stamping* do you need before you can produce or consume it? Who does this certifying, accepting, and/or rubber stamping?

IDENTITY

- Who produces, consumes, and regulates it? Who would NEVER be involved with it? Why?
- Who *cares* about it? Who thinks it's *important*? Why?
- What others *think* of people who do/use it? Why?
- What do you have to *know*, *understand*, and *believe* in order to do / use it? What has to be "*common sense*" for you, in order to be the kind of person who does / uses it?
- How does the object create insiders and outsiders — or, an "us" and a "them"? Who is "us"? Who is "them"? Who decides? How?

SIGNIFICATION

- What does it *signify* (what is it a *signifier* for)? What *signifies* it (what is it a *signified* of)? And to whom: to its creators / authors / doers? To other audience? To you?
- In what *context* do you find it? What's going on around it?
- What kind of *language* and *tone* and *feelings* are involved, and how do they work?
- How is it *structured*?
- What *genre conventions* does it work with? (A war? A chick flick? R & B? A rave?) What gives it away (i. e., what *signifies* adherence to these conventions)? How does it live up to, not live up to, or transcend the expectations of that genre?
- What does it look, sound, smell, taste, and feel like — to you, and to others?
- What *arguments* is it making — intentionally or not? How, and why, does it make them?

QUESTIONS

1. How does culture influence IPR?
2. What are the main variables of Hofstede's value work?
3. What is the personal influence model of PR by Sriramesh about?
4. What does "representational system" of Circuit of Culture Model include?

REFERENCES

- BARDHAN, PR. (July–December 1996). Decentralised Development. *Indian Economic Review*, 31(2), 139–156.
- BAUDRILLARD, J. (1988). *The ecstasy of communication*. New York: Semiotext.
- COOMBS, T. (2001). Interpersonal communication and public relations. In R. Heath, (Ed.), *Handbook of public relations* (pp. 105–114). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- CURTIN, P. A., & GAITHER, T. K. (2005). Privileging identity, difference, and power: The Circuit of Culture as a basis for public relations theory. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 17(2), 91–115. https://doi.org/10.1207/s1532754x-jpr1702_3
- CURTIN, P. A., & GAITHER, T. K. (2007). *International public relations: Negotiating culture, identity and power*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publishing.
- DOZIER, D. M., & REPPER, F. C. (1992). Research firms and public relations practices. In J. E. Grunig (Ed.), *Excellence in public relations and communication management* (pp. 185–215). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- DU GAY, P., HALL, S., JAMES, L., MACKAY, H., & NEGUS, K. (1997). *Doing cultural studies: The story of the Sony Walkman*. London: Sage.
- GRUNIG, J. E., & GRUNIG, L. A. (1992). Models of public relations and communication. In J. Grunig (Ed.), *Excellence in public relations and communication management* (pp. 285–325). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- GRUNIG, J. E. (2001). Two-way symmetrical public relations: Past, present, and future. In R. H. Heath, & G. M. Vasquez (Eds.), *Handbook of public relations* (pp. 11–30). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- HALL, S. (1997). *Representation: cultural representations and signifying practices*. London: Sage.
- HALL, S. (2001). Input-friendliness: motivating knowledge sharing across intranets. *Journal of Information Science*, 27(3), 139–146.
- HOFSTEDE, G. (1984). *Culture's consequences*. Beverly Hills: Sage.
- HOFSTEDE, G. (1991). *Culture and organization: Software of the mind*. London: McGraw-Hill.
- HOFSTEDE, G. H. (2001). *Culture's Consequences. Comparing Values, Behaviours, Institutions and Organizations Across Nations* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks/CA: Sage Publications.

HOLTZHAUSEN, D. R., PETERSEN, B. K., & TINDALL, N. T. (2003). Exploding the myth of the symmetrical / asymmetrical dichotomy: Public relations models in the new South Africa. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 15(4), 305–341. https://doi.org/10.1207/S1532754XJPRR1504_02

HUANG, Y. (2000). The personal influence model and Gao Guanxi in Taiwan Chinese public relations. *Public Relations Review*, 26(2), 219–236.

HUNG, C. F. (2007). Toward the theory of relationship management in public relations: How to cultivate quality relationships? In E. L. Toth (Ed.), *The future of Excellence in public relations and communication management: Challenges for the next generation* (pp. 443–476). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

KENT, M. L., & TAYLOR, M. (2002). Toward a dialogic theory of public relations. *Public Relations Review*, 28(1), 21–37.

LUSSIER, R. N., & ACHUA, C. F. (2009). *Leadership: In Theory, Application, & Skill Development* (4th ed.). Florence KY: Cengage Learning.

MARCUS, A., & GOULD, E. W. (2000). Crosscurrents: cultural dimensions and global Web user-interface design. *Interactions*, 7(4), 32–46.

MARTIN, J. N., & NAKAYAMA, T. K. (1999). Thinking dialectically about culture and communication. *Communication Theory*, 9, 1–25.

OMENUGHA, K. A. (2002). Understanding International Public Relations. In C. S. Okunna (Ed.), *Teaching Mass Communication: A Multi-Dimensional Approach* (pp. 65–84). Enugu: New Generation Books.

RHEE, Y. (2001). Interpersonal communication as an element of symmetrical public relations: A case study. In E. Toth (Ed.), *The future of excellence in public relations and communication management: Challenges for the next generation* (pp. 103–118). London: Lawrence Erlbaum.

SAMLI, A. C. (2008). *Globalization from the Bottom Up*. New York: Springer.

SAMOVAR, L. A., & PORTER, R. E. (Eds.). (2009). *Intercultural communication: A reader* (10th ed.). Belmont, CA: Thompson/Wadsworth.

SERVAES, J. (1988). The many faces of power, ideology and culture. In search of a more interpretative communication research. In Paper ICA Conference. New Orleans.

SRIRAMESH, K. (1992). The impact of societal culture on public relations: Ethnographic evidence from India. *Public Relations Review*, 18(2), 201–211.

SRIRAMESH, K. (1996). Power distance and public relations: An ethnographic study of southern Indian organizations. In H. Culbertson, & N. Chen

(Eds.), *International public relations: A comparative analysis* (pp. 171–190). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

STEWART, C., SHIELDS, S., & SEN, N. (1998). Diversity in on-line discussions: A study of cultural and gender differences in Listservs. *Electronic journal of communication*, 8 (3/4). Retrieved from http://www.cios.org/getfile/Stewart_V8N398.

TAYLOR, M. (2000). Cultural variance as a challenge to global public relations: A case study of the Coca-Cola tainting scare in Western Europe. *Public Relations Review*, 26(3), 277–293.

TAYLOR, M., & KENT, M. L. (1999). Challenging assumptions of international public relations: When government is the most important public. *Public Relations Review*, 25(2), 131–144.

TOTH, E. (2007). *The future of excellence in public relations and communication management: Challenges for the next generation*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum. 629 p.

VERČIČ, D., GRUNIG, L. A., & GRUNIG, J. E. (1996). Global and specific principles of public relations: Evidence from Slovenia. In H. Culbertson, & N. Chen (Eds.), *International public relations: A comparative analysis* (pp. 31–66). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

WU, M. Y., & TAYLOR, M. (2003). Public relations in Taiwan: Roles, professionalism, and relationship to marketing. *Public Relations Review*, 29(4), 473–483.

ZAHIR, S., DOBING, B., & HUNTER, M. G. (2002). Cross-cultural dimensions of Internet portals. *Internet Research: Electronic Network Applications and Policy*, 12, 210–220.

Chapter 3

MASS MEDIA AND INTERNATIONAL PUBLIC RELATIONS

3.1. The Urgency of Mass Media in International Public Relations

Wilcox and Nolte [1997] observed that despite the continued tension between public relations professionals and journalists, the symbiosis in the relationship requires that they maintain “a solid working relationship based on mutual respect for each other’s work” (p. 285). Newsom, Turl, and Kruckeberg [2000] stated that for public relations professionals, “good working relationships with media personnel are always important for smooth functioning...” (p. 395). In their book, *On Deadline*, Howard and Mathews [2000] stressed the need to practice strategic media relations as part of an overall program of public relations and proposed several aspects of effective media relations, such as the characteristics of a good spokesperson.

Cutlip, Center, and Broom [2000] reiterated that public relations practitioners need to understand how the media operate in a variety of countries before developing strategies for conducting effective media relations. The most popular source for understanding different global media environments is the literature in the field of mass communication that describes normative theories of global media systems.

Sallot and Johnson [2006] reviewed the relationship between journalists and public relations practitioners over a 15-year period and concluded that journalists interviewed in 2002–2004 valued public relations sources more than those interviewed between 1991–1996. The authors also con-

cluded that on average, journalists reported that about 44 % of media content in the US came from public relations sources.

Because of the powerful effects that the media have in shaping public opinion nationally and internationally, public relations professionals have given primacy to media relations. To conduct effective media relations, international public relations practitioners need to understand the nature of media environment in a particular country. Only then can they develop strategies for conducting effective media relations suitable to that environment.

Currently, the only source for understanding different global media environments is the body of literature in the field of mass communication that describes normative theories of global media systems first proposed by Siebert, Peterson, and Schramm [1956] and subsequently revised and enhanced by several authors.

The media systems concept is outdated because of significant world changes, especially in the 1990s. For example, the fall of the Soviet bloc obviates the Soviet media theory, and the fall of Communism in all but a few isolated countries makes the Communist media theory of limited use.

3.2. The Process of Mass Media System Theories Development

Because the mass media have enormous power to influence public opinion, it behooves global public relations professionals to understand how the media operate in different societies if they are to establish a strong working relationship with the media of different regions.

However, the world has changed significantly since many of these theories were proposed, making some of the normative theories proposed then obsolete, but they are a good foundation on which one can build new frameworks for understanding international media systems. Therefore, this section briefly reviews the literature on global media philosophies.

Siebert, Peterson, and Schramm [1956] identified four theories that they argued to help explain the media cultures prevailing in most countries of the world including Asia. The *authoritarian theory* described

the situation where the State views the mass media as its instrument at all times. The *libertarian theory* described societies that provide the media unfettered freedom, particularly from government control, so that they are free to report a variety of views available in a free marketplace of ideas as well as serve the “watchdog” function of keeping the all-powerful government in check. The *social responsibility theory* proposed by Siebert et al. was an extension of the libertarian theory but unlike the libertarian theory, which assumed that anyone who had the means and the inclination could use the media to publish anything, the social responsibility theory required the media to observe certain professional norms and codes of conduct in exercising their editorial freedom. The final media theory that Siebert et al. proposed was the *Soviet Communist theory*, which the authors saw as an extension of the authoritarian theory. Under this theory, the media were considered subservient to the proletariat, represented by the Communist party. A major difference between the Soviet Communist media theory and the authoritarian theory was that whereas the former described the use of the media for bringing about societal changes that the Communist party wanted, the latter described a system where the media were used for maintaining the status quo.

Lowenstein [Merrill, & Lowenstein, 1979] revised Siebert et al.’s theory and suggested that when distinguishing between media systems of different countries, the type of press ownership should be taken into account in addition to media philosophy. These authors identified three types of press ownership: *private* (individual ownership of the media supported primarily by advertising and subscriptions), *multi-party* (mostly ownership by political parties), and *government* (funded by the government and often subsidized by license fees collected by the government). Lowenstein also modified the Siebert et al. typology renaming the *Soviet Communist* as *Social-centralist* and *social responsibility* as *social libertarian*. Lowenstein argued that the new nomenclature removed the connotative baggage of the previous terms by eliminating the word *communist* from the former and by highlighting the libertarian characteristics of the latter. Later, Lowenstein [Merrill, & Lowenstein, 1979] added a fifth theory, *social-authoritarian*, which represented the use of the media by the governments of developing nations principally toward achieving national development goals, often at the expense of editorial freedom.

Anyways, this media systems concept is outdated because of the sea change that the world has undergone in the 1990s. As Hiebert [1992] stated: “political ideology is no longer an adequate way to divide up the world’s communication systems” (p. 125). Instead, we ought to see mass communication as process where communication is determined to have taken place only when the dissemination of *effective* messages takes place irrespective of the source, medium, or the content of the message. Strategic public relations professionals recognize that in order for messages to be effective, they have to meet the needs of the publics, and thus be consonant with the use of two-way communication between source and receiver. Therefore, there is a need to reconceptualize the media environment around the world.

3.3. The Framework of Three Factors for Designing Media Relations Strategies by Sriramesh

Sriramesh [1996] proposed a framework of three factors (media control, media diffusion, and media access) that should help public relations professionals design media relations strategies that are appropriate to different media environments. Adhering to this framework may make it easier for international public relations professionals to maintain effective channels of communication between their client organizations and relevant media around the world. Furthermore, the framework should help researchers study the nexus between the media and effective public relations practices in different countries.

Media Control

In the latest annual survey of freedom of the press in 195 countries and territories, researchers from Freedom House found that “[T]he state of global press freedom declined in 2006, with particularly worrisome trends evident in Asia, the former Soviet Union, and Latin America” [Karlekar, 2007, p. 1]. The report also noted that:

Despite notable improvements in a number of countries, gains were generally overshadowed by a continued, relentless assault on

independent news media in a group of geopolitically crucial states, including Russia, Venezuela, Iran, and China, as well as declines in countries with more open press environments, such as Argentina, Brazil, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, and Thailand. Moreover, a growing number of governments moved in 2006 to restrict internet freedom by censoring, harassing, or shutting down sites that provide alternative sources of news and commentary (p. 1).

Maintaining effective media relations requires that public relations professionals understand who controls the media organizations in a country and whether such control extends to editorial content. The latest Freedom House survey of media freedom found that 75 countries had media systems that could be classified as free, 50 had partly free media, and 61 were not free [Sussman, & Karlekar, 2003]. The study found that the number of countries with free media was the highest it has ever been. However, it is interesting to note that 111 countries still have media systems that are either partly free or not free. In his introduction to the 1999 World Press Survey conducted by Freedom House, Sussman [1999] stated that “Not until the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 did those areas of the world under Communist domination begin to experience some freedom of the news media” (p. 1). The author also reported that in many regions of the world press freedom was weakened by inexperienced journalists and partisan control of the media. In Freedom House’s 2002 survey, there was clear evidence that press freedom was an outcome of more pluralistic regimes.

Around the world, media ownership is limited to a few principal sources depending on the nature of political system and level of economic development of the country. In developed democracies, it is the capitalistic entrepreneur who invests in the media, sustaining media operations principally through sale of advertisements and relying, to a relatively smaller extent, on revenue from subscriptions. There is minimal direct or indirect fiduciary relationship between the government and media organizations in capitalistic systems. The need to sell news as a commodity is naturally strong in such an environment, leading to interesting choices in coverage.

On the contrary, in developing countries, one can often discern media ownership in the hands of political interests as well as the elites of the so-

ciety. Maintaining the status quo is often paramount for these media moghuls as an incentive to influence media content. The few theocracies of the world provide us examples of the impact of religious interests on media organizations and media content. In most developing countries, the government typically owns the electronic media and often permits private entrepreneurs to own print media.

However, it is not uncommon for governments to threaten even financially sound media outlets as evident in an example from Thailand. In March 2002, the government of Thailand banned the editions of two international newspapers and threatened to deport the reporters of these media outlets as retribution for running a story critical of the government. The World Association of Newspapers and the World Editors Forum, which represents more than 18,000 publications in 100 countries, complained to then Prime Minister Thaksin Shinawatra that the proposed expulsion of the two foreign journalists ordered by his government constituted “a breach of the right to freedom of expression.” In addition, the Shinawatra government pressured local media to “tone down critical reporting” [Karlekar, 2007, p. 8].

Even the young and evolving literature on global public relations has examples of the power of media control in societies with different levels of economic development. Even in the well-developed modern democracy of Japan with a free press, access to the media is controlled through press clubs not due to economic reasons but primarily due to cultural ones [Sriramesh, & Takasaki, 1998]. Sriramesh and Takasaki concluded that it is critical for public relations professionals operating in Japan to maintain a good working relationship with the secretaries of these press clubs, because these gatekeepers determine whether a press release is even allowed to be disseminated among media members of the club. After studying media relations in another developing country, Sriramesh reported that many public relations professionals in India agreed that establishing open lines of communication with strategically placed people in the government and industry was a critical part of their activities.

It is important to recognize that media ownership does not necessarily result in media control. In many developing countries, even though

the media may be overtly owned by private interests, they are strictly monitored and controlled through overt and covert means by political or government forces. Sussman [1999] reported that the Freedom House survey had found that “the muzzling of journalists was increasingly accomplished by more subtle, legalistic methods than through violence or outright repression” (p. 1). Government advertisements are a principal method for political rulers to maintain control over media content. Because advertising income forms the bulk of revenue (and, therefore, the basic means of survival) for a large section of private media in many developing countries, this subtle method of control is often very effective. Controlling the supply of the means of production such as newsprint (often imported by the government and sold to media organizations at subsidized costs) is another effective way for governments to maintain their control over privately owned mass media. It is also not uncommon for political rulers of developing nations to own their own media outlets (usually print media) and use them for controlling public opinion with the sole purpose of maintaining the status quo.

Nevertheless, it is worth noting that media ownership became highly concentrated in the hands of a few corporations particularly in the last quarter of the 20th century. Only five major players (Time Warner, Disney, Viacom, News Corp and Bertelsmann) now control the lion’s share of the 37,000 different media outlets in the United States. This number jumps to 54,000 if one counts all weeklies, semiweeklies, and advertising weeklies and all “periodicals,” including strictly local ones. The number becomes 178,000 if one counts all “information industries” [Bagdikian, 2004, p. 29]. That way they effectively control \$236 billion spent annually on advertising in the mass media and the approximately \$800 billion that Americans spend on media products themselves.

The authors analyzed strategies used by China and Cuba to control Internet use and found interesting differences:

The principal difference between China’s and Cuba’s approaches to the Internet revolved around their reactive measures of control. Cuba’s strategy hinges on control of access to the Internet, including a prohibition on individual public access and the careful selection of institutions that are allowed to connect to the Internet. In contrast, China has pro-

moted more widespread access to the Internet and has tried to limit the medium's potential challenges through a combination of content filtering, monitoring, deterrence, and the promotion of self-censorship.

Editorial freedom is directly proportional to the level of economic development of a country. It is the lack of resources and infrastructure that have limited editorial freedom in developing nations. In their study of the relationship between press freedom and social development in 134 nations, Weaver and Buddenbaum [1985] concluded that "the stronger the media are economically, the less likely the government is to control these media" (p. 113). The reality is that, in most developing countries, economic independence is a mirage for most media outlets, which also results in various limitations on editorial freedom. The proposal for a New World Information Order from developing countries was derailed primarily on the basis of media economics and concomitant issues pertaining to editorial freedom.

Media Diffusion

In the first book written by Sriramesh he had used the term "media outreach" to refer to the extent to which the media permeate a given society. The concept of "media outreach" has now been renamed as "media diffusion," for greater clarity. Public relations professionals like to place stories in the media but also know that theory tells us that by merely publishing a message, one cannot claim to have made the desired impact on one's audience. Practicing public relations globally requires that practitioners understand the extent of media *diffusion* in the countries of their choice before they attempt to place information in a particular medium in order to reach a larger section of the populace.

High levels of illiteracy and poverty play a critical role in disseminating messages in developing countries. However, it is critical that traditional media be used judiciously. West and Fair [1993] studied the use of what they termed (before the advent of the Internet) "modern," "popular," and "traditional" media in Africa and highlighted the pitfalls of the improper use of indigenous African media (or "traditional" media) for developmental activities. For example, the authors cautioned that it would be inappropriate to use Mozambique's *paiva* genre of song for "transmission

of messages originating in an authority external to the very community that maintains them” because historically the songs are “suited to empowerment of the oppressed vis-a-vis authority” (p. 101). It also would be important for the international public relations practitioner to be cautious in using the *Makonde* and *Makua* genre of African sculpture, which is a medium of ridiculing officials (Isaacman, & Isaacman, 1983, p. 69, cited in [West, & Fair, 1993]) and therefore, may be inappropriate for many information campaigns. Although we have presented data above showing that particularly mobile telephony offers great potential for nearly-universal diffusion of the Internet, Verčič, Razpet, Dekleva, and Šlenc [2000] found that both public relations and Internet use are still unequally distributed around the globe.

The authors noted that in the year 2000 both public relations and the Internet were practically absent in Africa, emerging in Asia and in parts of Latin America, globalizing in parts of Europe and Latin America, and were truly globalized only in North America and Western Europe (with Australia and New Zealand).

However, when dealing with media diffusion, it is necessary to consider in the context of international terrorism, what Dartnell [2005] called “multimedia activism”: “Multimedia activism is based in image and text-based representations that transgress identity, space, and the legitimation capacities of states. Multimedia transgresses in a distinct manner by transmitting a dramatic representation of events.”

Media Access

The flip side of media diffusion is media *access*. Whereas media diffusion refers to the extent of dispersion of the mass media in a society, media access denotes the extent to which the citizenry of a society can use the mass media as a partner to disseminate messages they deem important. Media access does not remain constant across societies. As noted earlier, Sriramesh and Takasaki [1998], reporting on the nature of Japanese public relations, identified *press clubs* as interlocutors between the media and other publics, including corporations who might want to gain access to the media thereby limiting access to the media in Japan.

A savvy international public relations practitioner will recognize that just as an organization’s access to the media is critical, so is the extent

to which the media are accessible to those who frequently challenge organization such as activists. Activism has a profound impact on public relations. While activism contributes to the dynamism of an organization's environment, thereby posing threats to organizational autonomy, activists also provide public relations opportunities to an organization [L. Grunig, 1992]. Organizations are forced to communicate symmetrically when activists use the media to challenge their image in the court of public opinion. This also is the kind of two-way communication that Hiebert [1992] proposed in his critique of the normative media theories. Harold Burson recognized the significance of activists to the public relations profession by stating that it was not until the emergence of intense environmental and consumer advocacy in the 1980s that many CEOs began to appreciate the significance of the public relations practitioner to organizational activities [Parker, 1983]. Responding to activists' pressure is at the heart of issue management principles that Jones and Chase [1979] and Crable and Vibbert [1985] proposed. That is precisely why activism has been identified as one of the five environmental variables of critical importance to international public relations practice [Sriramesh, & Verčič, 2003].

All these scholars recognize the fact that if the media of a society are accessible to individuals or groups with different points of view, the resulting publicity will increase the fluidity of the environment for organizations. The organization then will be forced to use two-way flow of communication for conducting its public relations activities with a variety of publics, rather than focusing on one or two publics. But if various groups that do not conform to the mainstream ideology are not accorded a forum for publicly voicing their agenda, then the extent of pressure on an organization is drastically reduced, calling for minimal sophistication in public relations. Therefore, understanding the extent to which the media are accessible to various activist and other groups in a society helps the international public relations practitioner by providing, among other things, a gauge on the amount of opposition that the environment might pose.

ICTs — new media — have certainly changed the dynamics as far as access to the mass media are concerned. It is not an exaggeration to say that with the advent of the Internet, many leading print media organizations have felt pressured to alter the way they cover and report the news in order to compete. ICTs have given rise to social media such

as Internet forums, message boards, weblogs, wikis, podcasts, pictures and video. Technologies such as blogs, picture-sharing, vlogs, wall-postings, email, instant messaging, music-sharing, crowdsourcing, and Voice Over Internet Protocol (VOIP), are used. These social media have in many ways obviated the need to rely solely on “traditional” media such as newspapers, magazines, radio, and TV.

Examples of social media applications are Google Groups (reference, social networking), Wikipedia (reference), My Space (social networking), Facebook (social networking), Last.fm (personal music), YouTube (social networking and video sharing), Second Life (virtual reality), Flickr (photo sharing), Twitter (social networking and microblogging) and other microblogs are Jaiku and Pownce. Many of these social media services can be integrated via Social network aggregation platforms like Mybloglog, a Yahoo property, Blogcatalog, and Plaxo. (Wikipedia 2008)

Because of their pervasiveness and increasing influence by providing a forum for people to disseminate information without going through the traditional gatekeepers such as media reporters and editors, social media are becoming an interesting topic of research in public relations [Wright, & Hinson, 2008].

QUESTIONS

1. In what extent do specialists in IPR need to use Mass media?
2. What are four theories of Siebert?
3. What classifications did Lowenstein propose?
4. What factors were proposed by Sriramesh due to different media environment?
5. What is media control and how can it be measured?
6. What is media diffusion?
7. What is media access?

REFERENCES

- BAGDIKIAN, B. H. (2004). *The New Media Monopoly*. Boston: Beacon Press.
- CRABLE, R. E., & VIBBERT, S. L. (1985). Managing issues and influencing public policy. *Public Relations Review*, 11, 3–16.

CUTLIP, S. M., CENTER, A. H., & BROOM, G. M. (2000). *Effective public relations* (8th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

DARTNELL, M. (2005). Communicative practice and transgressive global politics: The d'ua of Sheikh Muhammed Al-Mohaisany. *First Monday*, 10(1). Retrieved from http://firstmonday.org/issues/issue10_7/dartnell/index.html.

GRUNIG, L. (1992). Activism: How it limits the effectiveness of organizations and how excellent public relations departments respond. In J. E. Grunig (Ed.), *Excellence in public relations and communication management* (pp. 503–530). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

HIEBERT, R. E. (1992). Global public relations in a post-communist world: A new model. *Public Relations Review*, 18(2), 117–126.

HOWARD, C. M., & MATHEWS, W. K. (2000). *On deadline: Managing media relations*. Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland.

JONES, B. L., & CHASE, W. H. (1979). Managing public policy issues. *Public Relations Review*, 5(2), 3–23.

KARLEKAR, K. D. (2007). Press Freedom in 2006: Growing Threats to Media Independence. Retrieved from <http://www.freedomhouse.org/template.cfm?page=131&year=2007&essay=28>.

MERRILL, J., & LOWENSTEIN, R. (1979). *Media, messages and men: New perspectives in communication*. New York: Longman. (Original work published 1971)

NEWSOM, D., TURL, J. V., & KRUCKEBERG, D. (2000). *This is PR: The realities of public relations*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

PARKER, R. A. (1983). Potholes lurking on the PR path: An interview with Harold Burson, Burson-Marsteller CEO. *Communication World* (November), 12–13.

SALLOT, L. M., & JOHNSON, E. A. (2006). Investigating relationships between journalists and public relations practitioners: Working together to set, frame and build the public agenda, 1991–2004. *Public Relations Review*, 32(2), 151–159.

SIEBERT, F. S., PETERSON, T., & SCHRAMM, W. (1956). *Four theories of the press*. Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.

SRIRAMESH, K. (1996). Power distance and public relations: An ethnographic study of Southern Indian organizations. In H. Culbertson, & N. Chen (Eds.), *International public relations: A comparative analysis* (pp. 171–190). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

SRIRAMESH, K., & TAKASAKI, M. (1998). The impact of culture on Japanese public relations. Paper presented to the Public Relations Division, International Communication Association, Jerusalem, July 21, 1998.

SRIRAMESH, K., & VERČIČ, D. (2003). The global public relations handbook: Theory, research, and practice. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

SUSSMAN, L. (1999). The news of the century: Press freedom 1999. New York, NY: Freedom House.

SUSSMAN, L. R. & KARLEKAR, K. D. (2003). The Annual Survey of Press Freedom 2002. New York: Freedom House. Retrieved from <http://www.freedomhouse.org/pfs2002/pfs2002.pdf>.

VERČIČ, D., RAZPET, A., DEKLEVA, S., & ŠLENC, M. (2000). International public relations and the Internet: Diffusion and linkages. *Journal of Communication Management*, 5(2), 125–137.

WEAVER, D. H., & BUDDENBAUM, J. M. (1985). Press Freedom, Media, and Development 1950–1979: A Study of 134 Nations. *Journal of Communication*, 35(2), 104–117.

WEST, H. G., & FAIR, J. E. (1993). Development communication and popular resistance in Africa: An examination of the struggle over tradition and modernity through media. *African Studies Review*, 36(1), 91–114.

WILCOX, D. L., & NOLTE, L. W. (1997). Public relations writing and media techniques. New York: Longman.

WRIGHT, D. K., & HINSON, M. (2008). Examining the increasing impact of social media on public relations practice. Retrieved from <http://www.instituteforpr.org/files/uploads/Wright-Hinson.pdf>.

Chapter 4

PUBLIC RELATIONS, DIPLOMACY AND STRATEGIC COMMUNICATIONS: INTERNATIONAL MODEL

4.1. Public Relations and Public Diplomacy

For decades, scholars and practitioners have debated the issue of separation or convergence between public relations and public diplomacy. In the global war against terrorism, these functions have become integral to efforts by nations and international alliances to achieve domestic and foreign policy goals. Recent integration of public relations with public diplomacy and even psychological operations in global, political-military approaches to strategic communication suggest a practical convergence that is moving beyond a theoretical explanation. Without a theoretical framework to guide these programs, the boundaries among communication functions could erode and threaten the integrity of public relations and public diplomacy.

To manage such threats as activists, insurgents, and terrorists and promote support at home and abroad, nations and international alliances are integrating public relations and public diplomacy in global, political-military approaches to *strategic communication*. These strategic communication programs rely on *soft power* (e.g., popular media, cultural programs) to attract others to cooperate and on *hard power* (e.g., political, economic, and military sanctions or force) to persuade or compel others to adopt goals. Public relations and public diplomacy often operate together with other communication functions like psychological operations to support soft and hard power applications.

Public Relations

Public relations is generally defined as strategic management of communication and relationships between organizations and their publics, or in the public sphere [Seitel, 2007]. A global theory of public relations has advanced this view by incorporating political as well as cultural and societal variables [van Ruler, & Verčič, 2002].

National governments and political-military alliances often refer to the public relations function as *public information* or *public affairs*. This nomenclature grew from the historical model of public information associated with legislation and regulations that restrict public relations activities within the government agencies of some nations [Grunig, & Hunt, 1984].

Public Diplomacy

The field of *international relations* focuses on relationships among national governments [Signitzer, & Wamser, 2006]. Within this field, *diplomacy* is conceptualized as the management or negotiation of relationships among these governments through international or intercultural communication [Belay, 1997]. Globalization of national economies, evolution of new media channels, and expansion of social networks allow more actors to participate in international relations. These trends have also given rise to new forms of diplomacy: *public diplomacy*, *cultural diplomacy*, and *media diplomacy* [Signitzer, & Wamser, 2006].

Public diplomacy consists of direct communication among governments and foreign publics; cultural diplomacy relies on favorable attitudes toward a nation's culture to facilitate diplomatic relations; and media diplomacy utilizes news media channels to conduct open diplomacy [Melissen, 2005]. In contrast to diplomacy, which is characterized by discrete, formal, and official communication, public diplomacy and its cultural and media counterparts are open, informal, and mobile [Steinbock, 2003]. Public and media diplomacy extend international communication beyond the realm of professional diplomats and other government officials to anyone with access to the Internet or global news media.

To facilitate cultural diplomacy, many countries operate networks of cultural centers around the globe: Chinese Confucius Institutes, French Cultural Centers, German Goethe Institutes, etc. To assure presence

abroad, nations also communicate directly or indirectly through broadcast channels and Web-based programs that cross international borders. The British Broadcasting Corporation's World Service seems to be the gold standard, but there are many other examples. The European Commission of the European Union stands behind the EuroNews; the Emir of Qatar enables Al Jazeera's Arabic news network, at least financially; and the Cable News Network could not have succeeded had U.S. administrations not seen the value of the "CNN effect" in promoting foreign policy goals.

4.2. Convergence of Public Relations and Public Diplomacy

Signitzer and Coombs [1992] were among the first scholars to explore conceptual relationships between public relations and public diplomacy. Drawing a distinction between the two fields, they observed, "While public relations theory may be well suited to explain and to predict the communication behaviors of 'ordinary' organizations... diplomacy theories, for now, are better suited to the understanding of relationships between a nation-state and its foreign publics" (p. 138).

Signitzer and Wamser [2006] explored convergence process of public relations and public diplomacy and identified similarities between the two functions. They observed that public relations and public diplomacy are both strategic communication processes that manage communication, relationships, and consequences among organizations and their publics; and that both perform research, advocacy, dialog, and counseling. Citing economic and political trends, the authors also concluded that large organizations and multinational alliances are beginning to act like nations, which is causing public relations and public diplomacy to become "more and more intertwined in our times" (p. 444). However, audiences differ for public relations and public diplomacy. Notionally, public relations managers focus on communication among corporate leaders and organizational publics, while public diplomacy managers focus on communication among national leaders and foreign publics [Signitzer, & Wamser, 2006].

Yun [2006] examined conceptual convergence of post-Cold War public relations and diplomacy and found that principles of the excellence theory in public relations also applied to excellence in public diplomacy. Zöllner [2006] also pointed out a convergence of public relations and German public diplomacy after the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States. Collins [2003] examined ways that public relations and public diplomacy have converged with other communication functions like psychological operations in NATO's international, political-military alliance. Several other scholars examined how convergence of public relations and public diplomacy influences mediation of messages and perceptions about national policies and values, responses to natural disasters, and conflicts like terrorism [Zhang, 2007].

Global games like the 2008 Olympics in China have become a focus of research on public relations, public diplomacy, and soft and hard power. Black and van der Westhuizen [2004] contended that hosting such events is motivated by a desire to promote national identity, fulfill political goals, and expand global markets. Others have linked China's backing of the Olympics and other global events games with the country's increased use of soft and hard power — through public relations and cultural and media diplomacy — to promote national identity and consumer products. According to Y. Wang [2008], "China plans to use both the Olympic Games in 2008 and the Shanghai World Expo in 2010 as opportunities to carry out public diplomacy and promote the China Brand". This program of research provides opportunities to examine how global games become much more than sporting events. They also are a medium for cultural diplomacy. Just as scholars continue to study the "ping-pong diplomacy" between China and the United States in the 1970s [Wasserstrom, 2000/2001], contemporary scholars will examine the incongruous nature of the 2008 Olympic games as a medium for diplomacy. On one hand, China attempted to use the games to warm its relations with other nations; on the other hand, activists used the same games to discredit China's political policies.

4.3. Public Relations and Public Diplomacy: International Convergence Model

Integrated communication programs like the political-military approach to strategic communication have created a new model of convergence in international relations and organizational behavior. This model explains how public relations and public diplomacy, once considered separate concepts, are now converging within areas described by political military, strategic communication at an international level.

First, globalization and new forms of media channels have enabled many large organizations to wield types of economic and political influence once reserved for individual nations [Signitzer, & Wamser, 2006]. Therefore, international relations and organizational activities on a global scale often overlap. Second, scholars and practitioners have demonstrated similarities between public relations and public diplomacy that suggest convergence in practice and in theory. Third, strategic communication's coordinated approach to communication management synchronizes various forms of international and domestic information activities with other elements of national power.

Hence, strategic communication has become the point of convergence for organizational behavior and international relations — and their subordinate functions of public relations and public diplomacy, respectively. Fig. 1 (below) depicts the general area of convergence among international relations, organizational behavior, public diplomacy, and public relations. Fig. 2 (below) depicts the specific point within this area where public diplomacy and public relations converge during the coordination of communication plans, processes, themes, messages, and other elements of communication behavior.

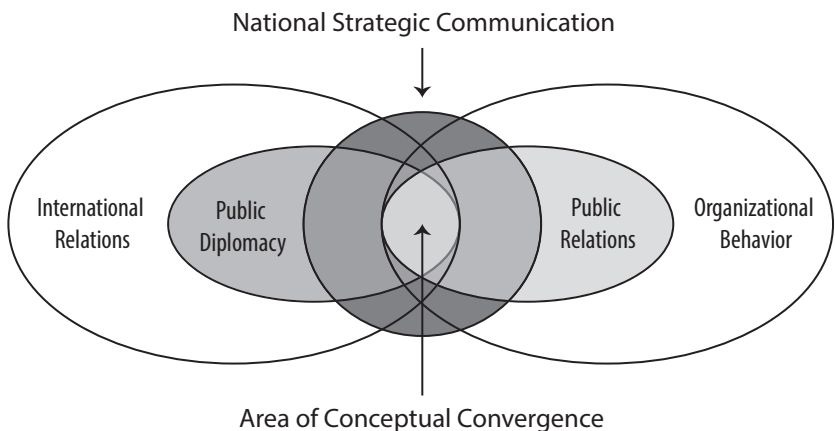


Fig. 1. Van Dyke and Verčič's Model of Public Relations — Public Diplomacy Convergence (Area of Conceptual Convergence)

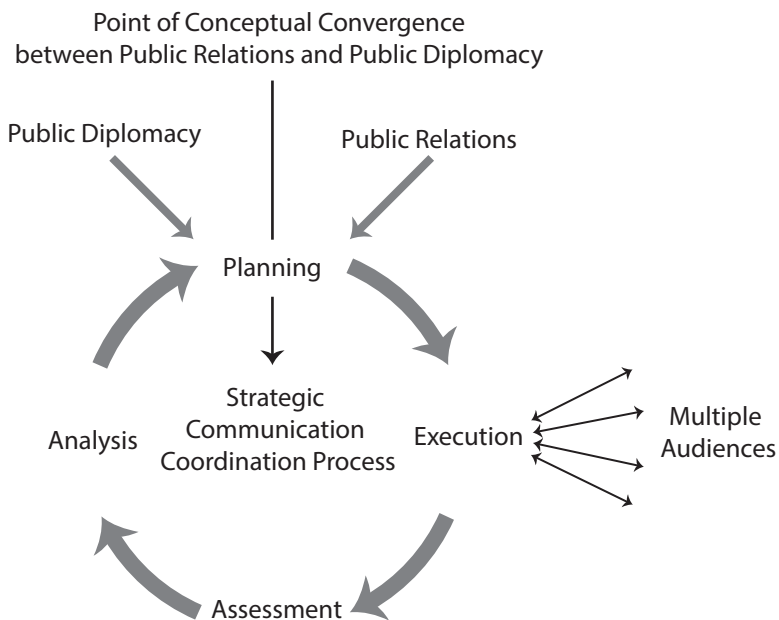


Fig. 2. Van Dyke and Verčič's Model of Public Relations — Public Diplomacy Convergence (Point of Convergence)

4.4. Strategic Communication and Information Operations

Strategic Communication

For decades, Western nations have considered strategic communication as a vital element of national power — operating alongside political, economic, and military power. Van Dyke [2001] reported, “The U.S. national security policy even describes information as an element of national power and advocates its use as a means to shape public perception and promote U.S. democratic ideals around the world” (p. 13). This perspective suggests a *perception management* approach to strategic communication adopted by organizations around the world [Collins, 2003] and by other nations like the United Kingdom [Beelman, 2001]. Such “shaping” activities are designed to influence members of foreign publics to adopt attitudes or opinions that are favorable toward the policies or products of an organization or nation. Furthermore, alliances like NATO have incorporated integrated approaches to communication that synchronize these elements of power [Combelles-Siegel, 1998].

Contemporary definition of strategic communication in the light of public relations theories has been offered by Hallahan, Holtzhausen, van Ruler, Verčič, and Sriramesh [2007, p. 17]: “Strategic communication is about informational, persuasive, discursive, as well as relational communication when used in a context of the achievement of an organization’s mission.”

Information Operations

Information operations (IO) have been defined as integration of “electronic warfare, computer network operations, psychological operations, military deception, and operations security, in concert with specified supporting and related capabilities, to influence, disrupt, corrupt or usurp adversarial human and automated decision making while protecting our own” [U.S. Joint Staff, 2006, p. GL-9]. Public affairs (e.g., public information or public relations) and public diplomacy are considered to be among IO’s related capabilities [Metz, 2006; U.S. Joint Staff, 2006].

4.5. Integrated Information Activities and Strategic Communication

As in the wake of World War I, government attempts to control messages and media channels in late-Cold War and post-Cold War conflicts resulted in public backlash. Adopting the British model of battlefield information control in the Falklands conflict (1982), the United States attempted to control media access to combat operations in Grenada (1983), Panama (1989), and the Persian Gulf (1990–1991). The United Nations also adopted the British approach to managing news media during its operations in the former Yugoslavia (1991–1995).

Mindful of strained relations with news media, the NATO alliance revised its approach to public information, psychological operations, and diplomacy in military operations. These plans were still under revision in late 1995 when NATO launched its peace operations in Bosnia-Herzegovina. NATO quickly approved an integrated information campaign designed to impart timely and accurate information to strategic audiences based on free and open reporting of its operations in the former Yugoslavia. The NATO model became a predecessor to contemporary information operations and strategic communication programs that integrate and coordinate information activities.

The United States published one of the world's first information operations manuals in 1996 [Beelman, 2001; U.S. Department of the Army, 2003]. In 1999, the concept of information operations began to encompass non-military government agencies when U.S. President Bill Clinton established an *international public information* (IPI) program to manage and synchronize messages originating from all U.S. government agencies [Adair, & Blanton, 2006]. Following the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks, the United States began development of a broader communication strategy that would evolve into strategic communication [e.g., U.S. Joint Staff, 2006] and provide a “different and more comprehensive approach to public information efforts” [Bush, 2002, p. 31].

QUESTIONS

1. What are differences between public, cultural and media diplomacy?
2. What are similarities between Public Relations and Public Diplomacy?

3. What are specific points where Public Relations and Public Diplomacy converge during the coordination of communication process?
4. What is *strategic communication*?

REFERENCES

ADAIR, K., & BLANTON, T. (2006). The national security archive: Rumsfeld's roadmap to propaganda. Retrieved from <http://www.gwu.edu/~nsarchiv/NSAEBB/NSAEBB177/index.htm>.

BEELMAN, M. (2001). The dangers of disinformation in the war on terrorism. *Nieman Reports*, 55(4), 16–18.

BELAY, G. (1997). Ethics in international interaction: Perspectives on diplomacy and negotiation. In F. Casmir (Ed.), *Ethics in intercultural and international communication* (pp. 227–265). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

BLACK, D., & van der WESTHUIZEN, J. (2004). The allure of global games for 'semiperipheral' polities and spaces: a research agenda. *Third World Quarterly*, 25(7), 1195–1214.

BUSH, G. W. (2002). *The national security strategy of the United States*. Washington, DC: The White House.

COLLINS, S. (2003, Summer). Mind games. *NATO Review*, 13–16.

COMBELLES-SIEGEL, P. (1998). *Target Bosnia: Integrating information activities in peace operations*. Washington, DC: National Defense University.

VAN DYKE, M. A. (2001, July). From coercion to collaboration: Toward a new communication continuum. Paper presented at the 8th International Public Relations Research Symposium, Bled, Slovenia.

GRUNIG, J. E., & HUNT, T. (1984). *Managing public relations*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

HALLAHAN, K., HOLTZHAUSEN, D., VAN RULER, B., VERČIČ, D., & SRIRAMESH, K. (2007). Denning strategic communication. *International Journal of Strategic Communication*, 1(1), 3–35.

MELISSEN, J. (Ed.). (2005). *The new public diplomacy: Soft power in international relations*. Hampshire, England: Macmillan.

METZ, T. (2006, May-June). Massing effects in the information domain: A case study in aggressive military operations. *Military Review*, 2–12. Retrieved from <https://apps.dtic.mil/dtic/tr/fulltext/u2/a489043.pdf>.

VAN RULER, B., & VERČIČ, D. (2002, July). The Bled manifesto on public relations. Paper presented at the 9th International Public Relations Research Symposium, Bled, Slovenia.

SEITEL, F.S. (2007). The practice of public relations (10th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

SIGNITZER, B. H., & COOMBS, T. (1992). Public relations and public diplomacy: Conceptual convergences. *Public Relations Review*, 18(2), 137–147.

SIGNITZER, B. H., & WAMSER, C. (2006). Public diplomacy: A specific governmental public relations function. In C. Botan, & V. Hazelton (Eds.), *Public Relations Theory II* (pp. 435–464). New York: Routledge.

STEINBOCK, D. (2003). Toward a mobile information society. *Georgetown Journal of International Affairs*, 4(2), 120–126.

U.S. Department of the Army. (2003). Information operations: Doctrine, tactics, techniques, procedures [Field manual 3–13/100–6]. Retrieved from <https://atiam.train.army.mil/soldierPortal/atia/adlsc/view/public/7422-1/fm/3-13/toc.htm>.

U.S. Joint Staff. (2006, February). Information operations [Joint publication 3–13]. Washington, DC: Department of Defense.

WANG, Y. (2008, March). Public diplomacy and the rise of Chinese soft power. *The Annals of the Academy of Political Social Science*, 616, Annals 257.

WASSERSTROM, J. (2000/2001, Winter). Beyond pingpong diplomacy. *World Policy Journal*, 17(4), 61–66.

YUN, S. (2006). Toward public relations theory-based study of public diplomacy: Testing the applicability of the excellence theory. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 18(4), 287–312.

ZHANG, J. (2007). Beyond anti-terrorism: Metaphors as message strategy of post-September-11 U.S. public diplomacy. *Public Relations Review*, 33(1), 31–39.

ZÖLLNER, O. (2006). A quest for dialogue in international broadcasting: Germany's public diplomacy targeting Arab audiences. *Global Media and Communication*, 2(2), 160–182.

Chapter 5

INTERNATIONAL PUBLIC RELATIONS OF FOREIGN GOVERNMENTS

5.1. The Role of International Public Relations in Nation Image Building

Taking the quantity of publications as an indicator, one has to conclude that the body of research on the issue of image cultivation by nations has large gaps. Even the relationship between news media and images of nations is not well researched. The main reason for this gap in research can be seen in the often highly sophisticated methods that states adopt to influence world opinion. Among others, public relations agencies and even the secret service units play a decisive role in these activities, which very often take place far from public view [Kunczik, 1997]. Public relations is often perceived as the art of camouflaging and deceiving and it is assumed that for public relations to be successful, target groups (those to be influenced) do not notice that they have become the “victims” of public relations efforts. Because credibility is a decisive variable in the communication process, attempts are constantly being made to influence media reporting by covert means to avoid the impression of manipulation. The aim of such activities is chameleon like: to adapt to the surroundings while remaining submerged. Attempting to identify the instigators of public relations by nations is often like trying to nail pudding to a wall. Therefore, there is very little literature on this theme. One cannot, after all, do a representative survey of the former KGB (or its successor organization) or the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA),

although the United States Information Service (USIS) has been the subject of a published empirical study [Bogart, 1976]. The borders between secret services and news agencies are often blurred, as evident from the example of TASS, the former Soviet news agency [Kruglak, 1962]. But besides that, most industrialized as well as developing countries either have created special organizations (e. g., USIS, the British Council, Maison Franchise, Goethe Institute, and so forth) to improve their country's image abroad or have commissioned public relations agencies to do so on their behalf.

For the nation-state, public relations implies the planned and continuous distribution of interest-bound information by a state aimed (mostly) at improving the country's image abroad. Trying to distinguish between advertising, public relations, and propaganda in foreign image cultivation is merely a semantic game. In Lasswell's [1942] definition of *propaganda* as "the manipulation of symbols as a means of influencing attitudes on controversial matters" (p. 106), one could easily substitute *public relations* for *propaganda*. It is interesting to notice that propaganda and public relations are synonyms following the tradition of one of the founding fathers of modern public relations Edward L. Bernays who stated: "the only difference between 'propaganda' and 'education', really, is the point of view. The advocacy of what we believe in is education. The advocacy of what we don't believe in is propaganda" [1923, p. 212].

So, public relations for the nation-state comprises persuasive communicative acts directed at a foreign audience. But a famous comment by Walter Lippmann applies also to the changeability of images: "For the most part we do not first see, and then define, we define first and then see" [1922, p. 81]. In other words, from the wealth of events and information available, we select those that conform to the already existing image (selective perception) in our minds. Furthermore, can information in which one is not interested in be ignored? For example, in September 1947, a six-month propaganda campaign to promote the United Nations was begun in Cincinnati whose slogan was: "Peace begins with the United Nations — the United Nations begin with you." It was largely unsuccessful because those who paid attention to the message were primarily individuals who already had an interest in, and were informed about, the United Nations. As Star and Hughes [1950] observed, "The conclusion

is that the people reached by the campaign were those least in need of it and that the people missed by it were the new audience the plan hoped to gain" (p. 397).

Donsbach [1991] published an extensive study on the selective perception of West German newspaper readers that clearly confirms the phenomenon of *de facto* selectivity. In the precommunicative phase, recipients chose those media that they assumed followed an editorial line as close as possible to their own political persuasions. This implies humans are more likely to select information that confirms their preexisting views than information that challenges preexisting views. Of course, this logic holds water only where there is a choice of free media. Donsbach was able to prove that newspaper readers prefer to read those articles that they expect will confirm their existing opinions. But, and this is very important, the selection rule applies only when positive information is offered. When negative information is offered, both supporters and opponents of a certain position have similar reactions: they heed it. In other words, the protective shield of selective perception works against information that might result in a positive change of opinion, but not against information that might produce a negative change of opinion. Churchill may have been right when he stated: "To build may have to be the slow and laboring task of years. To destroy can be the thoughtless act of a single day" [Howard, 1986/1987].

5.2. The History of Building National Image

Actually we can state that cultivation of nations image did not begin with the age of the mass media. The Bible contains examples that prove that the character of a nation and its image has concerned humanity from the beginning of its history. As reported in *Genesis* (18:32):

"...if God had found even 10 innocent people in Sodom, he would not have destroyed the city in order to save them". The Apostle Paul, in his letter to Titus (1:12), wrote the following about the Cretans: "It was a Cretan himself, one of their own prophets, who spoke the truth when he said, 'Cretans are always liars, wicked beasts, and lazy gluttons'."

For example, Herodotus discusses the characteristic habits of the Scythes, the Phrygians, the Libyans and many others. Vatsayana, in the Kama-Sutra, notices striking differences in the sexual behaviour of the human female, and one of his classifications is based on region of origin. Tacitus presents, in his famous *Germania*, an elaborate description of the attitudes, customs and morals of the Germans. Juvenal speaks rather sarcastically about the little Greeks in imperial Rome, and makes it quite clear that he considers them a rather contemptible bunch of spineless good-for-nothings.

The invention of the printing press by Gutenberg (about 1445) was the point of departure for a new kind of international public relations practice. Emperor Maximilian I (1493–1519) was the first German leader (and to the best knowledge of this author the first leader of any nation) to manipulate the predecessors of the modern newspaper — then called “new newspapers” (*neue zeytungeri*), as an instrument to influence public opinion. With biased war reports, he tried to influence the mood of the public in his empire. Maximilian also tried to communicate with the population of the enemy state, for example, the commoners of the Republic of Venice. In repeated appeals, he tried to incite them to insurrection against the finance aristocracy promising them liberation and a share of the city-state’s government and the possessions of the rulers.

And we can keep presenting words of very ancient and important celebrities with their providing characteristics of other nations. One of the brightest example of nations image building is the period of any wars where countries were fighting in creating prosperous image in the attempt to win in the war.

It is pertinent to mention that the “founding fathers” of the United States also made use of the media to achieve their foreign policy objectives during times of conflicts or war. James Truslow Adams [1927] who compared World War I propaganda activities with those used by the founding fathers came to the conclusion that the widely held view that propaganda was an invention of the World War I was inaccurate. He argued that the propaganda activities of the anti-British American revolutionaries were comparable to those mounted between 1914 and 1918. The 1776 revolution had been set in motion by Samuel Adams and a number of other agitators living in Massachusetts. Generally speaking, American

public opinion was against the federalists who tried to portray the British as an enemy. Incidents such as the Boston Tea Party were arranged partly for the purpose of attracting public attention through media coverage. Samuel Adams argued: "Put your enemy in the wrong and keep him there" [Baldwin, 1965, p. 8].

Nowadays nations are making increasingly conscious efforts to hone their country image in recognition of the need to fulfil three major objectives: to attract tourists, to stimulate inward investment and to boost exports. Such field of science as nation branding appeared.

A further objective for many nations is talent attraction, whereby countries compete to attract higher education students, and skilled workers. A wider set of potential rewards to be gained through nation branding has been proposed by Temporal [2002], who suggests that in addition to the key goals of attracting tourists, stimulating inward investment and boosting exports, nation branding can also increase currency stability; help restore international credibility and investor confidence; reverse international ratings downgrades; increase international political influence; stimulate stronger international partnerships and enhance nation building (by nourishing confidence, pride, harmony, ambition, national resolve). A further objective that may be aspired to by transitional countries such as those in Central and Eastern Europe may be to distance the countries from the old economic and political system that existed before transition.

For better or worse, the use of branding techniques is now highly pervasive in most societies. Different countries have adopted different strategies in order to confront the specific challenges they face. More and more countries around the world are embracing nation branding in order to differentiate themselves on the world stage and to strengthen their economic performance, primarily in terms of exporting, inward investment and tourism.

5.3. Actors in the Field of Public Relations in the International Arena

It is almost impossible to make a clear distinction between the nature of international public relations activities of nation-states, international social / economic organizations (e. g., the World Bank, Greenpeace), international political organizations (e. g., United Nations, NATO, etc.), and multinational corporations (MNCs). Furthermore, the same public relations agency often counsels nation states and MNCs.

A simple classification of those who use international public relations can be developed using two dimensions: for-profit vs. nonprofit and public vs. private. This is only a rough classification. Other actors are also in the field such as individual international influence brokers (e. g., former diplomats and government officials such as Henry Kissinger) and international public relations agencies (e. g., Interpublic, Omnicom Group, Wire & Plastic Products), who often give advice and influence, or at least try to influence, world politics.

Public relations for states is closely connected to the mediation of foreign policy. Hertz [1982] asserted: "It is perhaps no exaggeration to say that half of power politics consists of image making. With the rising importance of publics in foreign affairs, image making has steadily increased. Hardly anything remains in the open conduct of foreign policy that does not have a propaganda or public relations aspect..." (p. 187).

According to Signitzer and Coombs [1992], the field of diplomacy is shifting from traditional diplomacy toward public diplomacy. They wrote that "the actors in public diplomacy can no longer be confined to the profession of diplomats but include various individuals, groups, and institutions who engage in international and intercultural communication activities which do have a bearing on the political relationship between two or more countries" (p. 139). They also made a distinction between political information, usually administered by a section of the foreign ministry or by an embassy, and cultural communication, usually administered by a cultural section of the foreign ministry, cultural institutes abroad, or some semiautonomous body (e. g., the British Council). Two types of cultural communication were identified by the authors. The first, cultural diplomacy, refers to the creation of cultural agreements in a for-

mal sense aimed at presenting a favorable image of one's own culture abroad. The second, cultural relations, does not have unilateral advantages in mind but has the goal of information exchange in order to present "an honest picture of each country rather than a beautified one" (p. 140).

The shifting from traditional diplomacy toward public diplomacy implies that politicians are trying to instrumentalize the mass media. Adaptation of foreign policy to the mass media implies that politicians are accepting public relations counsel. The dominating motive of political action is no longer the substantial quality of policy, but the creation of newsworthy events, and public relations practitioners know how news is selected by journalists.

Bernays [1923] argued in his famous *Crystallizing public opinion*: "The counsel on public relations not only knows what news value is, but knowing it, he is in a position to make news happen. He is a creator of events" (p. 197). In his memoirs [1965] Bernays described how he advised the exiled Czech politician, Tomáš Garrigue Masaryk, who had been elected president of the Czechoslovak National Council, to issue his country's declaration of independence on a Sunday for public relations reasons because it would get more space in the media, Sunday being a slow news day.

Important to image building there are "pseudoevents" [Boorstin, 1961] that are deliberately staged to gain attention or create a certain impression. There are hundreds if not thousands of examples which demonstrate that the staging of pseudoevents has become routine. These make up much of media coverage. Mahatma Gandhi staged pseudoevents in his struggle for India's liberation from British rule. In 1930 he organized the famous march on the salt works of Dharasana (popularly known as Dandi March) in violation of government orders against marches, which resulted in the police caning several thousand demonstrators with long sticks with steel nails embedded in the end. More than 2,000 newspapers throughout the world reported this loud bath. World public opinion condemned the British for this barbaric action and an American senator read a UPI report on the incident in Congress. Physically, the police had been the victors, but morally they had been vanquished.

It is interesting to note that according to Wu [1998], who investigated the determinants of international news flow, concluded that "the every-

day representation of the world via news media is far from a reflection of global realities” (p. 507). Recent research on the international flow of television news demonstrates that some countries are in a central position (United States, Great Britain, Russia, France, and Germany) and many countries are in a peripheral position concerning the flow of news [Kim, & Barnett, 1996]. The flow of television news has a similar structure. The global market of television news is dominated by APTV (Associated Press TV), Reuters Television and WTN (World Television News) [Boyd-Barrett, 1998].

Given the structural conditions of the international flow of news, countries which need to have a positive image in a certain geographical region for economic or political interests (including those nations that are at a disadvantage from the outset because of the standard processes of gathering and reporting by mass media), must mount active publicity campaigns. Although by definition, public relations for states is always interest-bound communication, it can offset communication deficits resulting from the deficiencies of media structures. This form of public relations activity for states, meant primarily to compensate for structural communication deficits, aims mainly to adapt the image to news values by trying to influence mass media reporting. *Structural* international public relations helps in correcting the “false” images previously created by mass media. *Manipulative public relations*, on the other hand, tries to create a positive image that in most cases does not reflect reality and includes lying and disinformation.

The bright example of Manipulative public relations is The AIDS campaign of the KGB:

The AIDS disinformation campaign began in 1985 whereby the United States was blamed worldwide for the outbreak of the disease. This report, although dismissed as absurd by all experts, including Soviet medical scientists, met with much positive response, especially in African countries. For example Afrique Nouvelle, a weekly newspaper very close to the Catholic church, reported: “According to an authorized scientific source, the AIDS virus was developed in the research center at Fort Detrick, Maryland, where it was grown at the same time as other viruses to be used in biological weapons. It was then tested on drug addicts and homosexuals” [United

States Department of State, 1987, p. 71]. In August 1986 a study conducted by biophysicist Professor Jakob Segal, his wife Dr. Lilli Segal, and Dr. Ronald Dehmlow of Humboldt University in East Berlin became public. The study claimed that at Fort Detrick in 1977, the United States had synthetically manufactured the AIDS virus by combining two naturally occurring viruses, VISNA and HTLV-I. Experts agree that this hypothesis is untenable, but it circulated nonetheless in the media of Africa, South Asia, and the Soviet Union. Indeed, it was discussed extensively at the eighth conference of the Non-aligned Movement at Harare in September of that year. Both *Pravda* and *Izvestiya* have repeatedly printed articles alleging that AIDS was created in laboratories at Fort Detrick as part of alleged attempts by the United States to create new biological weapons [Walker, 1988]. The Soviet media later warned against American soldiers spreading AIDS in other countries. The obvious intention of such reports was to spread mistrust of the American military, but it also affected tourists, businesspeople, and so forth. Indeed, the newspaper *Sovetskaya Rossiya* reported on January 23, 1987 that in Western Europe AIDS was most prevalent in places where United States troops were based.

5.4. Images of Nations and the International Public Relations

In literature there is no clear definitive distinction between such concepts as attitude, stereotype, prejudice, or image. We agree with Boulding [1956] that the conception of an image involves not only present image but also aspects of its past as well as future expectations. Therefore, *national image* can be defined as the cognitive representation that a person holds about a given country — a person's beliefs about a nation and its people. Of special importance to political action is the benevolence or malevolence imputed to other nations in images as well as the historical component of the image. Feelings about a country's future are important too.

Boulding [1969] defined *image* as "total cognitive, affective, and evaluative structure of the behavior unit, or its internal view of itself and the universe" (p. 423). Whether our perceptions of the world are real or

fictional does not play a large part in our daily lives. One behaves as if one's perception of the world were "true."

The main objective of international public relations is to establish (or maintain existing) positive images of one's own nation or to appear trustworthy to other actors in the world system. Trust is no abstract concept. In the field of international policy, trust is an important factor in mobilizing resources such as receiving political and/or material support from other nations, for example. Put simply: trust is money and money is trust. The positive image of a country's currency reflects confidence in that country's future.

In 1926 French economist Albert Aftalion published his theory (*Théorie psychologique du change*) based on the hypothesis that the exchange rate of a country's currency is determined mainly by trust in the future of that country. A deficit of the balance of payments will not cause a devaluation of the currency as long as the belief in the future of the currency attracts foreign capital thus balancing the deficit. There is one main reason for the use of a certain currency as key currency: trust in that currency. Monetary policy is image policy. Money is an illusion, nothing more than the trust people have in their respective currency.

Public relations counselor Ivy Ledbetter Lee certainly was aware of the importance of trust when he argued: "Those who handle a loan must create an atmosphere..." [Hiebert, 1966, p. 266]. Lee knew that simple statistics were not enough to market a loan. Lee handled loans for Poland, Romania, France, and other countries, but considered Hungary a difficult case because too many people in America "had a mental picture of the [Hungarian] people as a wild, Bohemian lot, instead of the agricultural, sane, and highly cultivated people that they really are" (p. 267). His advice to Hungary was to create the image that their country was stable and civilized. Argentina had problems attracting investors because of its image of social instability. Lee advised them to send a polo team to the United States to compete with American teams contending that "polo is not played except where there is a very high degree of civilization and a stable society... The galloping gentlemen would tell the story more convincingly than any amount of statistics or mere statements as to the true conditions" (Ibid.).

Many countries (especially developing nations) make considerable efforts and spend vital and often scarce resources to cultivate their images abroad (especially in developed countries) principally to attract foreign aid. No precise linkage between commissioned public relations activities and what appears in the mass media as a result of these activities can be traced. Typically, one can do little more than guess at what suggestions were made, which were accepted, and how they were implemented. The precise nature of the intervention remains a mystery. Manheim and Albritton [1984] studied the influence of the activities of public relations agencies on the images of nations. In particular, they examined the coverage by *The New York Times* of six countries (the Republic of Korea, the Philippines, Yugoslavia, Argentina, Indonesia, and Rhodesia), which had hired public relations agencies in the United States. The major service the public relations firms had offered was to improve their client's access to American journalists. In addition, they wrote press releases, did direct mailings, and sent out newsletters and brochures. In some cases, embassy personnel were trained on how to speak about sensitive issues such as terrorism or human rights. Field trips for the press, visits with editors, and lunches with business groups were organized. One of the main effects of this public relations activity was that with the exception of Indonesia, the media coverage of each country was reduced. This corresponds to research findings on the effects of mass communications where the image of a country that makes negative headlines and also has a negative image in public opinion cannot be changed by the sudden appearance of positive reporting because this would be perceived as incredible. Withdrawal from public attention makes people forget, providing an opportunity to build a positive new image more slowly.

5.5. Methodological Framework for National Image Framing

Image is 'a human construct imposed on an array of perceived attributes projected by an object, event, or person' [Nimmo, & Savage, 1976]. The concept of projected images recognises individual and social constructions of the image, and questions implicitly the efficacy of state-

constructed images projected toward other countries. Despite the ambiguity of efficacy, there is room in this definition for image-makers to alter or create the public's perceptions of an object [Manheim, & Albritton, 1984]. Accordingly, national image can be divided into the categories of perceived and projected images.

Perceived images of nations can be identified as the pictures of other nations in the minds of people from the perspective of social psychology. Such an image is tied up with the attributes of the object and those of its beholders.

According to Lippmann, as we had already mentioned, people respond to situations by experiencing them through pictures drawn previously by themselves or presented to them, rather than directly. Other scholars discuss the concept of national images from the social-psychological perspective as well. For Kunczik, national image is 'the cognitive representation that a person holds of a given country, what a person believes to be true about a nation and its people' [1997, p. 47]. It deals with 'the climate of opinion formed by collective expressions of perceptions and judgements of a country by its overseas publics' [Wang, 2008].

Most image theorists (e.g. Cottam; Herrmann; Herrmann, Tetlock & Visser, as cited in [Alexander, Levin, & Henry, 2005]) examine the cognitive perceptions of group relations. They find that the perceptions of group relations will enhance the strategic responses of the images that a country holds of others. Alexander, Levin and Henry assert that the images or stereotypes that a nation has of another depend on three structural features of interstate relations: goal compatibility, relative power / capability, and relative cultural status, or sophistication. The assessments towards these structural relations will determine the kind of images that are classified as ally, enemy, barbarian, imperialist, and dependent (colonial) images, and subsequently can influence compatible international behaviors. Table 1 specifies the perceived structural relations, resulting images and the relative strategic responses.

According to projected images of other nations the objects are embedded in the minds of individuals, limited by external and internal factors. Media as the essential channel for people to get information on international issues, contribute heavily to national image projection. 'Every public image begins in the mind of some single individual and

Table 1

**Images of other nations as a function of goal compatibility,
relative status, and relative power (Herrmann & Fischerkeller,
as cited in [Alexander, Levin, & Henry, 2005, p. 30])**

Relationship pattern of other nation	Image of other nation	Potential action
Goal compatibility Status equal Power equal	Ally	Cooperation
Goal incompatibility Status equal Power equal	Enemy	Attack or conflict
Goal incompatibility Status lower Power lower	Dependent	Control or exploitation
Goal incompatibility Status lower Power higher	Barbarian	Potential invader
Goal incompatibility Status higher Power higher	Imperialist	Sabotage

only becomes public as it is transmitted and shared' [Boulding, 1956, p. 64]. From the media angle, national image refers to 'a representation of a country's positive or negative standing in media, in terms of historical, political, economic, military, diplomatic and religious context' (Hanan, as cited in [Saleem, 2007, p. 136]). The examination of portrayed media images of a given country needs to be cognizant of multidimensionality. Portrayed media image can be discussed 'in terms of political, economical, military, diplomatic and religious relations in the changing domestic, regional and international scenario and its effects on the thoughts, behavior, feelings, and inclinations of the owners of the media organization' (Noshina, as cited in [Saleem, 2007, p. 136]). At the same time, the public gain images of world affairs through the readings of mediated images and other texts [Chitty, 2007]. They rely more on media discourse for global issues rather than on direct experiences or the search for original

statements that are mostly available on the internet [Chitty, 2007; Choi, 2006]. Therefore, the mass media continue to 'occupy the most significant place for most people when they access the world beyond their immediate environment,' but information and misinformation can transform the world politically, militarily and economically, as addressed by Taylor [1997, p. 3].

Professional journalists wish to tell people what is happening as objectively as possible. However, there is a gap between journalistic ideals and practice. Whether a 'story' will be selected for airing in the public domain largely depends on its 'news value' or newsworthiness. News value consists of the following characteristics: Magnitude, Clarity, Ethnocentricity, Consonance, Surprise, Elite centeredness, Negativity, Human interest, Composition and Balance, Location Reporting, Actuality Reporting [Selby, & Cowdery, 1995].

News factors according to Selby and Cowdery [1995, p. 136–138]

1. Magnitude (or threshold) which refers to the relative significance of the event.

2. Clarity (or lack of ambiguity).

3. Ethnocentricity (or cultural familiarity), the idea that an event needs in some way to be a part of cultural experience of the audience for it to become newsworthy.

4. Consonance is directly connected with the expectations, values and beliefs of the audience.

5. Surprise (or unexpectedness). Events involving prominent members of society are more likely to make the headlines.

6. Elite centeredness. Events in the elite nations of Western Europe and in the USA are also regarded as having a higher news value for similar reasons.

7. Negativity. There is a number of reasons why bad news is good news for journalists and editors. First it is more unexpected. Second, its time-span makes it easier for the news medium to cover — good things usually take time whereas disasters happen quickly.

Finally, people are more likely to agree that an event such a train crash is negative than they are that a rise in share process is positive. Negative news is therefore more consensual, and in consequence more likely to become a news item.

8. Human interest plays an important part in the treatment the story receives.

9. Composition (or balance): authority and objectivity.

10. Location reporting: the importance of visuals and images and on live report.

11. Actuality reporting (the filmed material of the events), works in unison with location reporting, to increase the item's impression of authenticity and authority.

National images are multi-dimensional and multi-sourced. Perceived images and projected media images of other nations are two parts of national image study. Analyzing frames and framing in individuals' minds and media representation of national images is the method to identify the connections between individual and media frames. Drawing on framing theory, we term perceived images and projected media images of other nations respectively as private frames and public frames [Frame-Works Institute, 2003].

'Frame' can be used as a noun or a verb. As a noun, it refers to a set of lenses or filters through which information is selected. As a verb, it is engaged with the process of creating the aforesaid frames. It deals with 'both the construction of interpretative frames and their representations to others' [Kaufman, Elliott, & Shumueli, 2003]. As for a complete communication process, framing incorporates four aspects: the communicator, the text, the receiver, and the culture, allowing readers and journalists to define problems, bring up moral evaluation, explain causes or provide resolutions [Entman, 1993]. Frames are held in people's minds, informing our interpretations of the world with or without our consciousness. They exist prior to our processing of information, assisting in our interpretation of the complex world, but can lead us to misunderstandings. To frame is to 'select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text' (p. 52).

Framing occurs during media production. A media frame is the basis of a large unit of public discourse (Gamson, as cited in [Choi, 2006]). Media framing is the essential meaning-making activity in media production [Gamson, 1992]. By framing, media paints the pictures of our world [McCombs, 2002].

Described by Stuart Hall [2002], three reader positions: the dominant / hegemonic position (in which the reader accepts the message given by a text, and reproduces the preferred reading), the negotiated position (in which readers understand the dominant position but choose to apply it to their own social context), the oppositional / counter-hegemonic position (in which while understanding the dominant coding, the reader rejects the values it is putting forward), explain the variable degrees to which audiences accept, mediate or avert media messages. Therefore, people are not passive consumers of media discourse instead they reconstruct the meanings together with media practitioners. It may therefore be concluded that individuals are national image makers as well, and framing provides the approach to illustrate the spectrum from individual to society.

A given country's image is composed of two broad frames: private frames that are held in the minds of the public, referring to perceived national images, and public frames that are displayed in media, related to projected media national images. The study of both frames should be positioned in the present as well as the historical world politics context with the associated stereotypes. Furthermore, it is likely to have some gaps between private and public frames. Identifying two frames and comparing their similarities and differences will provide the means for reframing the host country's images, and promoting the better understandings and relations between countries.

Methodological framework for national image study with regard to framing theory is depicted in Fig. 3.

As for the examination of perceived national images, in-depth interviews with intermediate groups can be the better choice. The unstructured questions prepared for interviews provide participants more space and opportunity to offer private opinions on researched topics. Well-designed questions are the tools with which researchers may excavate otherwise hidden views from respondents.

Though top decision-makers, intermediate elites, and the general public are three categories one may consider in analyzing national images [Boulding, 1958; Kelman, 1965], the intermediate elite can be the most preferable participants. As to Wang's concern [2000], performing as a bridge between top decision-makers and the general public, inter-

mediate elites are those who are influential in shaping public conceptions of social agendas without directly participating in the foreign policy decision-making process. He argues that the opinions of intermediate elites weigh more than the other groups because they have a greater impact on policy-making than does the general public; they are better able to represent the general public views than the relatively small number of top decision-makers; they have more multichannel and multi-level associations with people from the country concerned; they have greater professional knowledge of issues. Furthermore, the intermediate elite group is more accessible for data collection than top leaders as face-to-face interviews with the latter are difficult to get, and their public state-

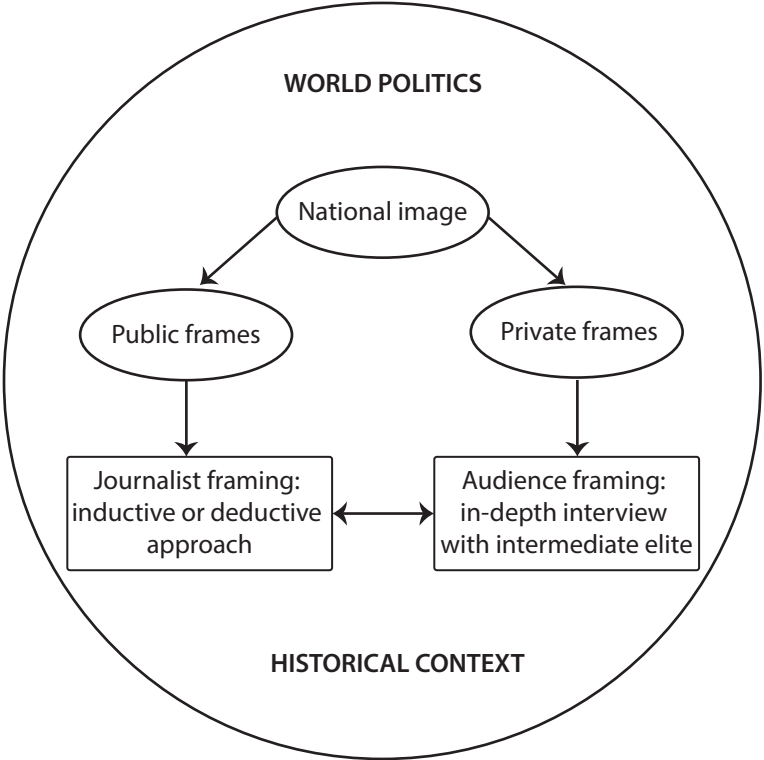


Fig. 3. A Model for National Image Study

ments do not necessarily reflect their real beliefs. Lasswell [1958; 1965] emphasizes the key role of influentials and elites in the study of politics and media. He states that influentials and elites, with greater skills, tend to manage the public through the manipulation of information flows in support of their political agendas.

Additionally, experts are drawn from the general public and inhabit the government sector, the business sector, the non government not-for-profit sector as well as media [Chitty, 2007]. One way to ascertain public opinion relies on the study of media texts, and another on questioning experts in a particular area, both sources being information rich, as suggested by Chitty. Intermediate elites, belonging as they do to groups of elites, influentials, and experts in three social sectors and media, have increasingly influenced national image construction. They, as the image perceiving collectivity, are crucial image-makers and opinion leaders. Consequently, intermediate elites are recommended in the search for perceived national images.

Inductive and deductive methods are alternative ways to examine projected media images. Media framing analysis aims at finding out 'the persistent patterns not just isolated stories' [Gitlin, 2003, p. 7]. As analyzed by Semetko and Valkenhurg [2000], in the inductive approach, analysis is initiated without any pre-defined frames, with the purpose of detecting the frames existing in the media texts [e.g. Gamson, 1992; Wu, 2006]; the deductive approach requires the prior determination of frames that are most likely to occur in the news reports. The former method is useful for finding the alternative ways that an issue is framed, and require a small sample. The latter can easily uncover the differences in framing within the same type of media but with different genres or between different sorts of media. It requires a large sample. Framing devices attempt at examining how media frames are constructed, like the use of language, the amount of time or space given to certain frames. There are four aspects suggested for analyzing the open media frames: the topic of a news item (what content is included in the frame), presentation (size and placement), cognitive attributes (details of what is included in the frame), and affective attributes (tone) (Ghanem, as cited in [Chyi, & McCombs, 2004]). Some fix frames found in previous research are used in the deductive media studies as well. For instances, 'episodic' and

‘thematic’ are two formats for news structure analysis [Iyengar, 1991]. Notably attribution, responsibility, conflict, human interest, economic consequences, morality and responsibility are the forms constantly taken by news frames [Semetko, & Valkenhurg, 2000]. Other frames include identity, characterization (stereotypes), power, conflict management / process, risk / information and loss versus gain frames [Kaufman, Elliott, & Shumueli, 2003]. Some questions are helpful for media framing analysis: “What is the frame here? Why this frame and not another? What patterns are shared by the frames clamped over this event and the frames clamped over that one, by frames in different media in different places at different moments? And how does the news-reporting institution regulate these regularities? What difference do the frames make for the larger world?” [Gitlin, 2003, p. 7].

QUESTIONS

1. What is the role of Public Relations in nation image building?
2. What is the beginning of nation image cultivation?
3. Name some actors in International Public Relations which provide work in nation image building.
4. What do structural International Public Relations and Manipulative PR help in?
5. What are perceived image and projected one?
6. What is framing methodology about?

REFERENCES

- ADAMS, J. T. (1927). *New England and the Republic 1776–1850*. Boston: Little, Brown.
- AFTALION, A. (1926). *Théorie psychologique du change*. *Revue d’économie politique*, p. 945–986.
- ALEXANDER, M. G., LEVIN, S., & HENRY, P. J. (2005). Image Theory, Social Identity, and Social Dominance: Structural Characteristics and Individual Motives Underlying International Images. *Political Psychology*, 26(1), 27–45.
- BALDWIN, W. H. (1965). History of persuasion. *Public Relations Quarterly*, 10, 74.
- BERNAYS, E. L. (1923). *Crystallizing public opinion*. New York: Boni & Live-right.

BERNAYS, E. L. (1965). *Biography of an idea: Memoirs of public relations counsel Edward L. Bernays*. New York: Simon & Schuster.

BOGART, L. (1976). *Premises for propaganda: The United States Information Agency's operating assumptions in the Cold War*. New York: Free Press.

BOORSTIN, D. (1961). *The image: A guide to pseudo-events in America*. New York: Harper & Row.

BOULDING, K. E. (1956). *The image*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

BOULDING, K. E. (1958). National Image and International System. *Conflict Resolution*, III(2), 120–131.

BOULDING, K. E. (1969). National images and international systems. In J. N. Rosenau (Ed.), *International politics and foreign policy* (pp. 422–431). New York: Free Press.

BOYD-BARRETT, O. (1998). Global news agencies. In O. Boyd-Barrett, & T. Rantanen (Eds.), *The globalization of news* (pp. 19–34). London: Sage.

CHITTY, N. (2007). *Toward an inclusive public diplomacy in the world of fast capitalism and diasporas*. Paper presented at the 'Foreign Ministries: Adaptation to a Changing World'. Retrieved from <http://www.diplomacy.edu/conferences/MFA2007/papers/chitty.pdf>.

CHOI, J. (2006). Framing the national image of North Korea in the U.S. news media. Retrieved from http://www.allacademic.com/meta/p_mla_apa_research_citation/0/9/2/4/7/pages92479/p92479-1.php.

CHYI, H. I., & McCOMBS, M. (2004). Media Salience and the Process of Framing: Coverage of The Columbine School Shootings. *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly*, 81(1), 22–35.

DONSBACH, W. (1991). *Medienwirkung trotz Selektion. Einflußfaktoren auf die Zuwendung zu Zeitungsinhalten*. Cologne, Germany: Böhlau.

ENTMAN, R. M. (1993). Framing: Toward Clarification of a Fractured Paradigm. *The Journal of Communication*, 43(4), 51–58.

FrameWorks Institute. (2003). *Strategic Frame Analysis*. Retrieved from <http://www.frameworksinstitute.org/sfa.html>.

GAMSON, W. A. (1992). *Talking politics*. Cambridge; New York: Cambridge University Press.

GITLIN, T. (2003). *The whole world is watching: mass media in the making & unmaking of the New Left*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

HALL, S. (2002). The television discourse: encoding and decoding. In D. McQuail (Ed.), *McQuail's reader in mass communication theory* (pp. 302–308). London: Sage.

HERTZ, J. H. (1982). Political realism revisited. *International Studies Quarterly*, 25, 181–187.

HIEBERT, R. E. (1966). *Courtier to the crowd: The story of Ivy Lee and the development of public relations*. Ames: Iowa State University Press.

HOWARD, C. M. (1986/1987, Spring). How to Say “No” Without Alienating Reporters. *Public Relations Quarterly*, 147–161.

IYENGAR, SH. (1991). *Is anyone responsible? How television frames political issues*. Chicago, London: University of Chicago Press.

KAUFMAN, S., ELLIOTT, M., & SHUMUELI, D. (2003). *Frames, Framing and Reframing*. Retrieved from <http://www.beyondintractability.org/essay/framing/>.

KELMAN, H. C. (1965). *International Behavior: A Social-psychological Analysis*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

KIM, K., & BARNETT, G. A. (1996). The determinants of international news flow: A network analysis. *Communications Research*, 23, 323–353.

KRUGLAK, T. E. (1962). *The two faces of TASS*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

KUNCZIK, M. (1997). *Images of nations and international public relations*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

LASSWELL, H. D. (1942). *Communications research and politics*. In D. Waples (Ed.), *Print, radio, and film in a democracy*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

LASSWELL, H. D. (1958). *Politics: who gets what, when, how*. New York: Meridian Books.

LASSWELL, H. D. (1965). *World politics and personal insecurity*. New York: Free Press.

LIPPMANN, W. (1922). *Public opinion*. New York: Harcourt Brace.

MANHEIM, J. B., & ALBRITTON, R. B. (1984). Changing national images: International public relations and media agenda setting. *American Political Science Review*, 78, 47, 641–657.

McCOMBS, M. E. (2002). News influence on our pictures of the world. In J. Bryant, & D. Zillmann (Eds.), *Media effects: advances in theory and research*. Mahwah, N. J.; London: L. Elbaum Associates.

NIMMO, D., & SAVAGE, R. L. (1976). Candidates and their images: concepts, methods and findings. Pacific Palisades: Good year.

SALEEM, N. U. S. (2007). Media Framing of foreign countries images: an analytical perspective. *Canadian Journal of Media Studies*, 2, 130–162.

SELBY, K., & COWDERY, R. (1995). How to study television. London: Macmillan.

SEMETKO, H. A., & VALKENHURG, P. M. (2000). Framing European politics: a content analysis of press and Television news. *Journal of Communication*, 50, 93–108.

SIGNITZER, B., & COOMBS, T. (1992). Public relations and public diplomacy: Conceptual convergences. *Public Relations Review*, 18, 137–147.

STAR, S. A., & HUGHES, H. M. (1950). Report on an educational campaign: The Cincinnati plan for the United Nations. *American Journal of Sociology*, 55, 389–400.

TAYLOR, P. M. (1997). Global communications, international affairs and the media since 1945. London; New York: Routledge.

TEMPORAL, P. (2002). *Advanced Brand Management: from Vision to Valuation*, John Wiley and Sons, Hoboken. Retrieved from <http://www.asia-inc.com/index.php?articleID=2083>.

United States Department of State (1987, October). *Soviet Influence Activities: A Report on Active Measures and Propaganda*. Washington, DC: United States Government Printing Office.

WALKER, F. E. (1988, May). Recent changes in the Soviet propaganda machine. *Journal of Defense & Diplomacy*, 95–103.

WANG, J. (2000). *Limited Adversaries: Post-Cold War Sino-American Mutual Images*. Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press.

WANG, J. (2008). The power and limits of branding in national image communication in global society. *International Political Communication*, 14(2), 9–24.

WU, H. D. (1998). Investigating the determinants of international news flow. *Gazette*, 60, 493–512.

WU, Min. (2006). Framing AIDS in China: A Comparative Analysis of US and Chinese Wire News Coverage of HIV/AIDS in China. *Asian Journal of Communication*, 16(3), 251–272.

Chapter 6

NONGOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS AND INTERNATIONAL PUBLIC RELATIONS

6.1. Nongovernmental Organizations

The nonprofit sector consists of organized individuals or organizations that wish to create a society as a community of responsible individuals oriented toward personal or family interests as well as toward the interests and development of their local community and global society [Pavicic, 2000].

Solving problems such as war, disease, or hunger and promoting international development should primarily be considered part of the standard “business portfolio” of government / governmental institutions. However, such problems are often resolved by the actions of community actors that are independent, cooperating, and non-governmental [Bellah, 1985; Pavicic, 2000]. Why is this so? Many governments and governmental institutions are usually either not able, not prepared, or not willing to be involved in the resolution of specific social problems — especially in “troublesome” cases like human rights, international democracy, democratic elections, or ecology. The only help in such situations is nonprofit organizations.

NGOs are groups of individuals organized for the myriad of reasons that engage human imagination and aspiration. They can be set up to advocate a particular cause, such as human rights, or to carry out programs on the ground, such as disaster relief. They can have memberships ranging from local to global. People and organizations willing and dedicated

to work and achieve the above mentioned goals are derived from one of the key democratic rights — the right of citizens to organize themselves [Pentikainen, 2000]. Although there is no general regulation governing NGOs, the basis for obtaining “nongovernmental” status includes three criteria: (1) NGOs should not be constituted as political parties, (2) they should not have profit as a motive, and (3) they should not be criminal in operation — in particular, they should be nonviolent [Willetts, 2002].

Because the problems that NGOs have to deal with are so diverse and encompass the political, economic, and social aspects of human existence, any generalization of the practical methods, goals or actors might be considered an inappropriate simplification. Instead, it might be useful to consider an analysis of the levels of NGO activities offered by Paul [2000]. By using the example of the World Court Project, a network of NGOs opposed to nuclear weapons, Paul suggested the following levels:

1. Micro-policy (getting the World Court to accept the case on the illegality of nuclear weapons),
2. Macro-policy (questioning governments’ strategic reliance on such weapons),
3. Norm-setting (persuading the public(s) that nuclear weapons are dangerous and a threat to real security in the world).

The largest growth in the number of international NGOs occurred in the period 1990–2000 as indicated in Table 2.

Gemmill and Bamidele-Izu [2002] suggested that civil society, through NGOs, should have one of the most important roles in the following five areas of activities:

- Information collection and dissemination,
- Policy development consultation,
- Policy implementation,
- Assessment and monitoring,
- Advocacy for environmental justice.

During the early 1990s different charity organizations came into the center of public attention due, among other things, to extremely high executive salaries and different forms of financial improprieties. The American Red Cross faced massive public protests over its mismanagement of funds collected after the earthquakes of San Francisco in 1989. The organization collected approximately \$52 million and

initially distributed only \$10 million to those affected by the earthquake. After public pressure, the organization rechanneled the entire amount to the victims [Tate, 2002]. After the September 11, 2001 tragedy in New York and Washington, D. C., the Red Cross drew the wrath of the public by announcing that it planned to channel part of the money collected by the Liberty Fund to future projects unrelated to the tragedy. At first, the Red Cross designated only 10 % of the fund to the families of victims. After the vociferous public criticism it received, the Red Cross reversed its earlier policy and announced that all the money raised for the Liberty Fund would be distributed to September 11 victims only and not reserved for any future use by the organization [Ibid.].

Such erosion in public confidence has been instrumental in making organizations which depend almost exclusively on the goodwill of people. Reforms in the way NGOs operate and communicate were aimed at reassuring the public that contributions are being spent for the core charitable mission of these organizations, with minimal spending on

Table 2

Growth of International NGOs between 1990 and 2000

Purpose	1990	2000	Growth (%)
Culture and recreation	1,169	2,733	26.0
Education	1,485	1,839	23.8
Research	7,675	8,467	10.3
Health	1,357	2,036	50.0
Social services	2,361	4,215	78.5
Environment	979	1,170	19.5
Economic development, infrastructure	9,582	9,614	0.3
Law, policy, advocacy	2,712	3,864	42.5
Religion	1,407	1,869	32.8
Defense	244	234	-4.1
Politics	1,275	1,240	-2.7
Total	31,246	37,281	19.3

Note. From *Human Development Report 2002*.

administrative costs [Frumkin, & Kim, 2001]. In the light of these events, public relations has gained new importance assuming responsibility for rebuilding organizational credibility and restoring public confidence.

Modern society is typified by intense media scrutiny in many parts of the world making any attempt to fool the public a fatal proposition. All NGOs are more or less dependent on the support of the public. All are also placed in the middle of various social, political, and economic trends that require high-quality management and good public relations. According to Cutlip, Center, and Broom [1999], the altered climate of the 1990s brought about a significant change in the way that public relations is practiced by NGOs. These authors mentioned five major trends in this area: the introduction of marketing and management concepts in communications strategies; the development of information technology and its implications; the use of advertising in public relations programs; the need for the adaptation of a public relations curriculum; and a constant increase in public relations standards in non-profit organizations.

Marketing concepts and management by objectives are becoming increasingly important to the communication strategies of NGOs. Technology has widened communication selectivity and reach, but on the other hand, has also raised the question of ethics, privacy and legitimacy. Sanborn [2000] stated: "By using the Web, non-profit groups are beginning to create individual identities and use skills they learned offline to present their message to a new, often global audience" (p. 37). Reis [2000] reported on a recent study from the Mellman Group that showed the vast potential of the Internet in bringing about social change. The study contended that about 50 million Americans over 18 have Internet access and also contribute time and money to charitable or advocacy causes.

One of the consequences of the revolution in communication technology is that people are overwhelmed with information overload. The only effective response is a comprehensive and focused strategic communication plan, based on coordinating communication management with the work of public relations professionals [Lauer, 1993].

Paid advertising has become the main communication tactic of NGOs. The American Cancer Society has achieved great success by carefully identifying concerns that people really care about, providing services that connect with major public issues, and communicating its activities

effectively through advertising [Gallagher, & Vaughan, 2002]. Kotler and Andreassen [1996] stated that one of the characteristics of organization centered nonprofit organizations is that they rely excessively on advertising and promotion to achieve their objectives. The authors added that “this is partly because they have a distorted view of what it takes to change people’s behavior” (p. 516).

The process of globalization accentuates the need for the development of international public relations principles. Verčič, L. A. Grunig, and J. E. Grunig [1996] have identified nine normative generic principles that can be used to describe, and practice, global public relations. These authors also proposed five environmental variables that can be used to construct country specific strategies, which include political ideology, the economic system, the level of activism, culture, and media culture. Sriramesh and Verčič [2001] later reduced these five factors to three: a country’s infrastructure, the media environment, and societal culture. It is easy to see how each of these dimensions influences the public relations strategies of the typical NGO. Taking into consideration the diverse global characteristics and specifics of the different publics around the world, the question is, are there any universally applicable values?

6.2. International Public Relations in Nongovernmental Organizations

Allen L. Hammond of the World Resources Institute recently proposed that the combination of global media, new technologies, and altruistic NGOs may soon empower the “underrepresented” of the world [cited in Bob, 2002].

In today’s society where the media determine what is “just,” NGOs have to struggle to gain public attention among many competing interests while also overcoming indifference of this international audience. They also have to compete with various powerful opponents such as governments, multinational companies, and international financial institutions that are supported by highly organized public relations. In that kind of context the transnational NGO community displays a clear hierarchy of influence and reputation. Large and powerful organizations such as

the Human Rights Watch, Amnesty International, Greenpeace, and Friends of the Earth have the resources and expertise to investigate the claims of local groups from distant places and give them legitimacy [Bob, 2002].

People live in different countries that often are also culturally distinct. One of the themes is that every country is a complex system of social relations, religious beliefs, languages, attitudes, and habits, all of which will obviously impact on how communications are received and delivered. It is a basic principle in communications theory that, for any communication to be successful, the sender of the message must understand the frame of reference of the receiver of the message [Schramm, 1954].

Obviously, the international NGO must understand the cultural dimensions of its relevant publics in order to be successful, because they may differ substantially from the public of its own home culture. Given these differences across cultures on various environmental variables, it seems logical that the publics in different countries may have different ways of deciding whom to trust, different levels of involvement toward the same cause, and so on. Despite this lack of empirical evidence, the starting point in formulating the main goals of international public relations for nongovernmental organizations should not differ significantly from the objectives NGOs identify for their domestic activities. The objectives that Wilcox et al. [2000] defined for nonprofit organizations (p. 389) can be viewed from an international perspective:

1. *Develop public awareness of the organization's purpose and activities.* All of the trends mentioned earlier, mainly the globalization of media and the fast development of information technology make it possible to communicate globally. Delivering the message to an international public becomes easier in light of those trends, even though the problem of cultural and national differences still remains an issue. NGOs have become sophisticated communicators and instigators of change in the global marketplace. Wootliff and Deri [2001] reported on a study conducted in the United States, Europe, and Australia which showed that in spite of large differences in size and approach among NGOs, these organizations are "no longer perceived as small brands of activists, but rather as the new 'super brands,' surpassing the stature of major corporations, government bodies and even the media among consumers" (p. 159).

In November 1997, *The New York Times* published a confidential Ernst & Young audit of labor and environmental activists it had conducted for one of Nike's factories in Vietnam. The audit, which was leaked to the newspaper, outlined the bad environmental practices of Nike, generating a series of articles and columns in newspapers across the United States and around the world critical of Nike. The NGO Working Assets Citizen Action followed up on the story and generated 33,000 letters to Nike CEO Phil Knight, urging him to pay workers a living wage and to implement a comprehensive third-party monitoring system. Pressure was brought upon Nike by NGOs such as Global Exchange and Vietnam Labor Watch who also encouraged universities doing business with Nike to push it into changing its behavior. In 1998 Nike announced its pledge to end child labor, to follow United States occupational health and safety standards, and to allow NGOs to participate in the monitoring of its Asian factories [Wootliff, & Deri, 2001].

2. *Induce individuals to use the services the nongovernmental organization provides.* After the public becomes aware of the NGO's purpose, the second and closely related step is connecting with the people at whom the service is aimed. The importance of communication in informing potential users of free medical examinations, clothing, food, counseling, scholarships, and other services is essential. The difficulties in transcending communication barriers are significant even without an international dimension. An example includes health and welfare agencies that need to build a communication bridge between ethnic communities. Traditional programs and communication messages fail to reach various needy publics because of cultural and linguistic differences, limited access to information, and low levels of education [Cutlip, Center, & Broom, 1999].

3. *Create educational materials (especially important for health-oriented agencies).* Again the international factor plays a major role in the formulation of the message but the issue of "speaking the same language" is a problem for NGOs domestically as well as internationally. The main challenge is in understanding the publics with whom the NGO is communicating. For example, in the population control campaigns in many developing countries, a major achievement of public relations campaigns has been to demystify contraception and make it acceptable for public

discussion of contraception in general, and specific contraceptive methods in particular [Kotler, & Andreasen, 1996].

4. *Recruit and train volunteer workers.* A significant proportion of international nonprofit organizations rely on unpaid volunteers for clerical assistance, fundraising, conducting tours and even volunteer recruitment. This can create two types of problems for the manager of the nonprofit organization. First, the need for a steady inflow of volunteers means that a third public is added to those with whom the manager must communicate. On one hand, programs must be designed to attract paid personnel, while on the other, communicators must be careful about the possible consequences of the proposed programs on existing volunteers, none of which is simplified with the international factor. Second, it is not easy to manage volunteers, because their status allows them to get away with a higher level of unreliability [Kotler, & Andreasen, 1996]. Cutlip, Center, and Broom [1999] reported that almost 40 million people volunteer each year in the United States. Because volunteers are an important resource in the life and economy of many NGOs, nongovernmental organizations need to constantly work toward attracting more volunteers. To continue attracting volunteers in the numbers necessary to carry out their programs, organizations need to take innovative approaches in communicating with their publics [Baskin, & Aronoff, 1988].

5. *Obtain funds to operate the organization.* The main financial resources of NGOs worldwide consist of large donations from private foundations, large individual public contributions, companies, other NGOs and government / governmental agencies. According to an estimate by Hulme and Edwards [1996], some \$5.7–10 billion passes through international NGOs annually. The role of high-quality, transparent international communication strategies in obtaining these funds is crucial.

Finally, one should take into consideration the fact that “communication influences, and is influenced by, culture. Logically, then, culture should affect public relations and, because public relations involves communication, public relations does help alter culture” [Sriramesh, & Verčič, 2001, p. 106]. It becomes quite obvious that all the elements of nongovernmental operations have significant implications on society as a whole. The changing competitive environments that affect the business world similarly affect NGO which must adapt to the changing social and economic envi-

ronments. In such a surrounding, “effective communication and public relations strategies will be central to their success” [Boyer, 1997, p. 508].

QUESTIONS

1. What is nongovernmental organizations?
2. What are areas of activities of nongovernmental organizations?
3. What is the role of international public relations in nongovernmental organizations work?
4. What changes in public relations by NGO happened in 1990?
5. What objectives for NGO can be from international perspective and why?

REFERENCES

- BASKIN, O. W., & ARONOFF, C. E. (1988). *Public relations: The profession and the practice*. Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown.
- BELLAH, R. N. (Ed.). (1985). *Habits of the heart: Individualism and commitment in American Life*. New York: University of California Press.
- BOB, C. (2002). Merchants of Morality. *Foreign Policy*, 36–45.
- BOYER, R. (1997). Public relations and communications for nonprofit organizations. In C. L. Caywood (Ed.), *The handbook of strategic public relations & integrated communications* (pp. 481–508). Boston: McGraw Hill.
- CUTLIP, S. M., CENTER, A. H., & BROOM, G. M. (1999). *Effective public relations* (8th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- FRUMKIN, P., & KIM, M. T. (2001). Strategic positioning and the financing of nonprofit organizations: Is efficiency rewarded in the contributions marketplace? *Public Administration Review*, 61(3), 266–275.
- GALLAGHER, M., & VAUGHAN, S. R. (2002). Internal controls in nonprofit organizations: The case of the American Cancer Society, Ohio Division. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 12(3), 313–325.
- GEMMILL, B., & BAMIDELE-IZU, A. (2002). The Role of NGOs and civil society in global environmental governance. In D. C. Esty, & M. H. Ivanova (Eds.), *Global Environmental Governance: Options and Opportunities*. Yale School of Forestry and Environmental Studies (pp. 77–91). New Haven CT.
- HULME, D., & EDWARDS, M. (1996). (Eds.). *NGOs, states and donors: Too close to comfort?* New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Human Development Report (2002). Published for the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). New York; Oxford: Oxford University Press.

KOTLER, P., & ANDREASEN, A. R. (1996). *Strategic Marketing for Non-Profit Organizations* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

LAUER, L. D. (1993). Achieving an admired organization: The essential elements of communicating nonprofits. *Nonprofit World*, 11(5), 36.

PAUL, J. A. (2000). NGOs and global policy-making. Retrieved from <http://globalpolicy.igc.org/ngos/analysis/ana100.htm>.

PAVICIC, J. (2000). *Upravljanje strateskim marketingom neprofitnih organizacija*. Doctoral dissertation. Zagreb: Ekonomski fakultet Sveucilista u Zagrebu.

PENTIKAINEN, A. (2000). *Creating global governance — The role of non-governmental organizations in the United Nations*. Helsinki: Finnish UN Association.

REIS, G. R. (2000). Fundraising on the Web: Why having a dot-org Website isn't enough. *Fund Raising Management*, 30(11), 22–24.

SANBORN, S. (2000). Nonprofits reap the rewards of the Web. *InfoWorld*, 22(25), 37.

SCHRAMM, W. (1954). *The process and effects of mass communication*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

SRIRAMESH, K., & VERČIČ, D. (2001). International public relations: A framework for future research. *Journal of Communication Management*, 6(2), 103–117.

TATE, C. F. (2002). Enron proof oversight. *Association Management*, 54(8), 85–96.

VERČIČ, D., GRUNIG, L. A., & GRUNIG, J. E. (1996). Global and specific principles of public relations: Evidence from Slovenia. In H. M. Culbertson, & N. Chen (Eds.), *International public relations: A comparative analysis* (pp. 31–65). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

WILCOX, D. L., AULT, P. H., AGEE, W. K., & CAMERON, G. T. (2000). *Public relations: Strategies and tactics* (6th ed.). New York: Longman.

WILLETTS, P. (2002). What is a non-governmental organization? Article 1.44.3.7. Non-Governmental Organizations. In UNESCO Encyclopedia of Life Support Systems. Retrieved from <http://www.staff.city.ac.Uk/p.willetts/CSNTWKS/NGO-ART.htm>.

WOOTLIFE, J., & DERI, C. (2001). NGO's: The new super brands. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 4(2), 157–164.

Учебное издание

Новоселова Ольга Викторовна

МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫЕ СВЯЗИ
С ОБЩЕСТВЕННОСТЬЮ:
ОБЗОР ИССЛЕДОВАНИЙ

INTERNATIONAL PUBLIC RELATIONS:
REVIEW OF RESEARCH

Учебное пособие

Заведующий редакцией *М. А. Овечкина*

Редактор *А. А. Макарова*

Корректор *А. А. Макарова*

Компьютерная верстка *В. К. Матвеев*

Подписано в печать 30.08.2019 г. Формат 60 × 84 ¹/₁₆.
Бумага офсетная. Цифровая печать. Усл. печ. л. 5,58.
Уч.-изд. л. 5,3. Тираж 40 экз. Заказ 186.

Издательство Уральского университета
Редакционно-издательский отдел ИПЦ УрФУ
620083, Екатеринбург, ул. Тургенева, 4
Тел.: +7 (343) 389-94-79, 350-43-28
E-mail: rio.marina.ovechkina@mail.ru

Отпечатано в Издательско-полиграфическом центре УрФУ
620083, Екатеринбург, ул. Тургенева, 4
Тел.: +7 (343) 358-93-06, 350-58-20, 350-90-13
Факс: +7 (343) 358-93-06
<http://print.urfu.ru>

